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ABSTRACT

A study investigated the nature and causes of the English language-based problems and the coping strategies of 44 Indonesian and 57 Malaysian students studying at Indiana University, Bloomington. The Indonesian and Malaysian student groups represented non-Commonwealth and Commonwealth students sharing the same native language roots but differed in terms of past exposure to the English language. Data included responses to a questionnaire, substantive personal interviews, observation of selected students in their classrooms, and assessment of samples of selected students' essays and lecture notes. Results indicated that the following factors had significant association with some specific English language-based problems: nationality; age; field of study; marital status; and speaking English at home. Results also indicated that the subjects' problems differed significantly in terms of the following variables: (1) educational level; (2) prior use of English as a medium of instruction; (3) residence in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the United States; and (4) length of stay in the United States. Coping strategies the students found to be effective included: watching television, listening to the radio, and reading to improve English vocabulary; sharing and discussing communication problems; forming study groups; and carefully monitoring deadlines. Findings suggest an urgent need for further research and training concerning the English language-based problems (verbal and non-verbal communication, academic discussions, study skills, and reading comprehension and speed) of such students. (Ninety tables of data are included; 69 references, the questionnaire, classroom observation schedule, permission and consent forms, and two charts of data are attached.) (Author/RS)

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A STUDY TO IDENTIFY AND ANALYZE THE PERCEIVED NATURE AND CAUSES OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE-BASED PROBLEMS AND THE COPING STRATEGIES OF THE INDONESIAN AND MALAYSIAN STUDENTS STUDYING IN AN AMERICAN UNIVERSITY

M. SOLAIMAN ALI

Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree
Doctor of Philosophy
in the Department of Language Education,
School of Education, Indiana University

October, 1991

CS508200

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Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my mother who died in August, 1991, when I was still writing it. The love and care I received from her were still the source of hope and strength for me to go on and finish this project.

M. Solaiman Ali

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M. Solaiman Ali

Bloomington, Indiana, USA
October 15, 1991

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to investigate the nature and causes of the English language-based problems and the coping strategies of the Indonesian and Malaysian students studying at Indiana University, Bloomington. The Indonesian and Malaysian student groups were selected to represent non-Commonwealth and Commonwealth students sharing the same native language roots but differing in terms of past exposure to the English language. The linguistic theory of communicative competence is discussed and the knowledge, skills and strategies which constitute the communicative competence of foreign students for study purposes at a U.S. university are identified. The study followed a multimethod design involving the use of a questionnaire, substantive personal interviews, observation of selected students in their classrooms, and assessment of samples of selected students' essays and lecture notes. The questionnaire data were collected from 44 Indonesian and 57 Malaysian graduate and undergraduate students enrolled at Indiana University, Bloomington, during the 1989-90 academic year. The qualitative data were collected from 6 subjects drawn from the larger groups.

It was found that a great majority of the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University had English language-based problems in a large number of areas. The results of chi-square tests indicated that the following factors had significant association with some specific English language-based problems:

(1) nationality, (2) age, (3) field of study, (4) marital status, (5) educational level, (6) prior use of English as a medium of instruction, (7) speaking English at home, (8) residence in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S., and (9) length of stay in the U.S. The results of t-tests indicated that the overall English language-based problems of the respondents differed significantly in terms of the following variables: (1) educational level; (2) prior use of English as a medium of instruction; (3) residence in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S.; and (4) length of stay in the U.S. The study also identified and analyzed the major causes of the English language-based problems and the coping strategies of the Indonesian and Malaysian students.

Recommendations are made for the Indonesian and Malaysian students and the American professors concerned, the Indiana University administrators, and the governments/sponsors of the Indonesian and Malaysian students.

The need for further research is stressed and the following particular areas are suggested for further research: (a) establishing the generalizability of the findings of the present study to Indonesian and Malaysian student populations at other U.S. institutions, (b) comparing and contrasting the English language-based problems of Indonesian and Malaysian students with those of other nationality groups, (c) the relationship between English language-based problems and study skills and socio-

cultural problems, (d) the relevance of the English language-based problems to performance in courses (e.g., GPA scores), and so on. Appendices are included. (MSA)

Signatures of Members of
the Research Committee: ____________________
(Director & Chairperson)

Members: ____________________

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August 2, 1991
Date ____________________

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CHAPTER 1

THE PROBLEM

A. RESEARCH QUESTIONS:

In identifying and analyzing the perceived nature and causes of the English language-based problems and the coping strategies of the Indonesian and Malaysian students at a major American state university, this study will attempt to answer the following questions:

1. What are the major English language-based problems of the Indonesian and Malaysian students at a major American state university?
2. Do the English language-based problems of the Indonesian and Malaysian students differ in terms of the selected personal and academic characteristics?
3. What are the major causes of the English language-based problems of the Indonesian and Malaysian students?
4. What are the major coping strategies found to be effective by the Indonesian and Malaysian students for overcoming language problems and achieving academic success?

B. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM:

Research on foreign students has sought to understand how, and how well, the process of education abroad functions, what problems it generates, and how useful the knowledge and skills acquired are perceived to be by the students concerned, their sponsors, and those who hope to benefit from their future work (Spaulding and Flack, 1976). Studies conducted in the United States have focused on the following areas:

-- comparisons of nationality groups of foreign students;
-- interactions between American and foreign students;
-- psychological and social impact of the sojourn on the foreign student;
-- the relationship of academic achievement to attitudes and adjustment of foreign students;
-- what happens to foreign students on returning home;
-- admission and academic performance of foreign students.

(Marion, 1986)

-- foreign students' adjustment problems, and the process of their adaptation and coping.

Previous research and literature also indicate that foreign students encounter, among other problems related to adjustment and coping, English language and study skills problems (Erickson, 1970; Lozada, 1970; Sen, 1970; Win, 1971; Holes, 1972; Payind, 1977; de Winter-Hebron, 1984; Heikinheimo and Shute, 1986; and Moore, 1987). This study will identify and analyze the perceived nature and causes of the English language-based problems and the coping strategies of the Indonesian and Malaysian students at a major American state university. It will attempt to answer the following specific questions:

(1) What are the major English language-based problems of the Indonesian and Malaysian students at a major American state university?

(2) Do the English language-based problems of the Indonesian and Malaysian students differ in terms of variables such as country of origin, age, sex, marital status, field of study, number of years of formal training in the English language, etc.?

(3) What are the major causes of the English language-based problems of the Indonesian and Malaysian students?

(4) What are the major coping strategies found to be effective by the Indonesian and Malaysian students for overcoming language problems and achieving academic success?

C. RATIONALE:

The purpose of many studies has been to determine the major problems faced by foreign students (Meloni, 1986). Most studies agree that homesickness seems to rank as the most serious problem. Ranking next to homesickness are problems related to finances, housing, and food. Major academic problems include English language ability involving understanding lectures, participating in class discussions, and preparing written and oral reports. Social problems usually mentioned are American social customs, making friends, relationships with the opposite sex, and being accepted by social groups (Meloni, 1986).

Although previous research on foreign students has produced some significant findings that can be useful in improving educational opportunities in the future, our knowledge of foreign students' English language-based problems is inadequate. English language-based problems of foreign students have formed only a small component of studies dealing with foreign students' problems in general. For example, Sharma (1971) sought to identify and analyze the most severe difficulties foreign students encounter in three areas: academic, personal, and social adjustments. She found that foreign students attending universities in North Carolina considered the following academic problems as most severe: giving oral reports, participating in class discussions, taking notes in class, understanding lectures, and preparing written reports in English. Students from South Asia seemed to make better academic adjustments than those from the Far East.

Similarly, Win (1971) sought to identify the problems of Japanese and Indian students at the University of California in six areas: academic, financial, housing, religious, personal, and social. He found that Japanese students encountered many more English language-based difficulties than did Indian students in registration, understanding lectures and textbooks, reciting in class, and preparing oral and appropriate courses in English. Payind (1981) studied the academic, personal, and social problems of Iranian and Afghan students in the United States. Students were asked to indicate the most important causes of their academic, personal, and social problems. Over 37% of the respondents thought that English as a foreign language was the most important cause of their academic problems. Foreign students' academic problems were also to a certain extent due to differences between the educational systems of their home countries and of the United States. Payind concludes that perhaps the causes of such difficulties in English were: (a) lack of exposure to

English in their home countries, and (b) inadequate methods and techniques of teaching English in both home countries and the United States. Also, the respondents saw English language training at U.S. universities as being unsuccessful in properly equipping them to pursue academic work mainly because the English improvement courses do not place any emphasis on English language-based study skills such as techniques of note-taking and writing papers.

Funston and Funston (1985) conducted a survey of graduate programs for foreign students at three law schools with different missions and characteristics. The survey focused on the following points: (1) students' backgrounds (cultural, linguistic, geographic, educational, and professional); (2) student reasons for attending a graduate law program in the United States; (3) student preconceptions and expectations about the United States in general and the law program in particular; (4) any language or cultural problems encountered by the foreign students; and (5) the steps taken by the law schools to anticipate or remediate such problems.

The results of the study indicated the following: (1) In each school, student perceptions of the program differed from faculty and administrator perceptions. Faculty and program directors reported no identifiable pattern of problems, but foreign students reported experience of language-based problems. (2) Students' perceptions of their own English skills followed no general patterns, although all of the foreign students took longer than native students to complete reading assignments; (3) The most commonly reported problems were with speaking skills, despite program reliance on the TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) as an indicator of skill level. All of the foreign student graduate programs are recently implemented, but all anticipate expansion. It is recommended that institutions establishing similar programs engage specialists in English as a Second Language for program development and/or provide for individual consultation with students.

However, there is currently no extensive study documenting the nature and extent of the English language-based problems and the probable causes of such problems of foreign students in the United States. Therefore, a systematic and in-depth study is needed in order to identify and analyze these problems.

D. ASSUMPTION/HYPOTHESES:

The following assumption will be proven:

Assumption: Significantly high percentages of the Indonesian and Malaysian students have English language-based problems.

The following hypotheses will be tested:

Hypothesis # 1: Relationships/Associations between Students' Personal and Academic Characteristics and Specific as Well as Overall Language Problems.

Hypothesis # 2: Difference between the Overall Language Problems of the Two Student Groups Based on Nationality.

Hypothesis # 3: Difference between the Overall Language Problems of the Two Student Groups Based on Age.

Hypothesis # 4: Difference among the Overall Language Problems of the Four Student Groups Based on Field of Study or Academic Disciplines.

Hypothesis # 5: Difference between the Overall Language Problems of the Male and Female Student Groups.

Hypothesis # 6: Difference between the Overall Language Problems of the Married and Single Student Groups.

Hypothesis # 7: Difference between the Overall Language Problems of the Graduate and Undergraduate Student Groups.

Hypothesis # 8: Difference between the Overall Language Problems of the Two Student Groups Based on Previous Use of English as the Medium of Instruction in the Home Country.

Hypothesis # 9: Difference between the Overall Language Problems of the Two Student Groups Based on Previous Use of Textbooks in English in the Present Field.

Hypothesis # 10: Difference between the Overall Language Problems of the Two Student Groups Based on Speaking of English at Home.

Hypothesis # 11: Difference between the Overall Language Problems of the Two Student Groups Based on Residence in an English-speaking Country before Beginning Studies in the U.S.

Hypothesis # 12: Difference between the Overall Language Problems of the Two Student Groups Based on Length of Learning English.

Hypothesis # 13: Difference between the Overall Language Problems of the Two Student Groups Based on Length of Stay in the U.S.

E. DELIMITATIONS:

This study includes foreign students only from Indonesia and Malaysia who are currently enrolled at Indiana University, Bloomington. The data on the English language-based problems of all Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University, Bloomington, will form the basis of conclusions in the study.

F. DEFINITION OF TERMS:

FOREIGN STUDENT:

A foreign student is anyone enrolled in courses at institutions of higher education in the United States and who is not a citizen or an immigrant (Open Doors: Report on International Educational Exchange, 1986-87). Persons with refugee status are included in this definition. A foreign student enters the United States temporarily for the purpose of pursuing a course of study at an established institution of learning or other recognized place of study in the United States.

ENGLISH LANGUAGE-BASED PROBLEM:

A problem/difficulty/uncertainty a foreign student experiences in a learning situation for lack of an English language-based skill.

ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE:

It means the role of English in countries where it is taught as a subject in schools but not used as a medium of instruction in education nor as a language of communication (e.g., in government, business, or industry) within the country. (Richards and Weber, 1985). In the case of Indonesia, English is a foreign language.

ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE:

It means the role of English in countries where it is widely used within the country (e.g., as a language of instruction at school, as a language of business and government, and of everyday communication by some people) but is not the first language of the population. (Richards and Weber, 1985). In this sense, English is a second language in the former British colonies, e.g., of the South-Asian subcontinent, Malaysia, Nigeria, and Singapore.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THEORY AND RESEARCH

A. COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE: THE THEORY WHICH SUPPORTS THE USE OF LANGUAGE AS THE MEDIUM OF LEARNING.

Introduction:

The present study is concerned with foreign students' English language related problems in achieving academically. It is assumed that a foreign student, before embarking on his/her studies at a U.S. university, has acquired a set of English language-based knowledge and skills as well as the strategies to use this set of knowledge and skills. The policy of admitting foreign students by U.S. colleges and universities reflects this assumption. In order to determine whether or not foreign students have such English language-based knowledge and skills, U.S. colleges and universities rigorously apply the TOEFL (the Test of English as a Foreign Language). One of the objectives of this study is to determine what English language-based problems foreign students still have after passing the test and starting on academic programs at a U.S. university.

In order to investigate this area, we need to understand the role of the theory which undergirds language use and communication in learning situations such as an American institution of higher learning. The theory of language which advocates the teaching of language for functional use is known as communicative competence.

The Major Characteristics of Communicative Competence:

Coined by sociolinguist Hymes (Hymes, 1971, cited in Savignon, 1987:235) to include knowledge of sociolinguistic rules, or the appropriateness of an utterance, in addition to knowledge of grammar rules, the term "communicative competence" has come to be used in language teaching contexts to refer to the ability to negotiate meaning. In other words, it involves a target learner's ability to successfully combine a knowledge of linguistic, sociolinguistic, and discourse rules in communicative interactions (Savignon, 1972, 1983, cited in Savignon, 1987: 235). The term applies to both oral and written communication, in academic as well as non-academic settings (Savignon, 1987).

Communicative competence refers to both underlying knowledge about language and communicative language use and skill, or how well an individual can perform with this knowledge base in actual communication situations (Canale, 1983, cited in Omaggio, 1986: 8).

The Canale and Swain Model:

A succinct framework of communicative competence was given by Canale and Swain. The Canale and Swain framework, which comprises all four macro-skills in a language (listening, speaking, reading, and writing), has four components (Omaggio, 1986):

(i) grammatical competence
(ii) sociolinguistic competence
(iii) discourse competence
(iv) strategic competence

Grammatical Competence:

Grammatical competence refers to the degree to which the language user has mastered the linguistic code. It means mastery of the sound system of a language and its syntax and semantics, and knowledge of vocabulary. Canale and Swain (1980b, cited by Omaggio, 1986: 7) maintain that such competence is an essential concern for any communicative approach that is oriented toward the eventual attainment of higher levels of proficiency, in which accuracy of understanding and expression are important goals.

According to Savignon (1983), grammatical competence means not only mastery of the linguistic code, but also the ability to recognize the lexical, morphological, syntactic,and phonological features of a language and to manipulate these features to form words and sentences.

Sociolinguistic Competence:

Sociolinguistic competence addresses the extent to which grammatical forms can be used or understood appropriately (in spoken or written language) in various contexts to convey specific communicative functions, such as persuading, describing, narrating, and giving commands (Omaggio, 1986). It includes mastery of the use of appropriate forms, registers, and styles of language for different social contexts.

One of the goals of intercultural analysis, says Savignon (1983), is to make explicit the rules of a culture and thereby help non-native speakers to understand and adapt more easily to patterns with which they are unfamiliar.

Understanding the appropriateness of a particular utterance is one of the criteria of sociolinguistic competence. Appropriateness involves more than knowing what to say in a situation or context and how to say it. According to Savignon (1983), maintaining a formal register or an academic style of speech in some situations where a familiar or informal register might be used by native speakers is considered appropriate. These L2 speakers are aware that such proper or school book language is in keeping with the role of stranger or foreigner that has been assigned to them by native speakers and is thus more likely to promote successful communication, e.g., in the classroom.

Sociolinguistic competence involves two sets of rules: (1) appropriateness of written utterances within a given socio-cultural context (contextual factors such as topic, role of participant, setting, and norms of interaction), and (2) appropriate attitude or style conveyed by a particular grammatical form within a given socio-cultural context (Bridgeman and Carlson, 1983).

Discourse Competence:

Discourse competence involves the ability to connect utterances in a meaningful way and relate them appropriately to a topic. It involves communicative competence in any of the four language skills--listening, speaking, reading or writing. It is concerned not with the interpretation of isolated sentences but with the connection of a series of sentences or utterances to form a meaningful whole. It involves the ability to combine ideas to achieve cohesion in form and coherence in thought (Omaggio, 1986). A person who has a highly developed degree of discourse competence will know how to use cohesive devices, such as pronouns and grammatical connectors (i.e., conjunctions, adverbs, and transitional phrases and expressions), to achieve unity of thought and continuity in a text. The competent language user will also be skilled in expressing and judging the relationships among the different ideas in a text (coherence).

Recognizing the theme or topic of a paragraph, chapter, or book, getting the gist of a telephone conversation, a poem, television commercial, office memo, recipe, or legal document requires discourse competence. Based on general knowledge of the real world, as well as familiarity with a particular context, a reader or listener infers meaning. The meaning of a text, then, depends on the values, intentions, and purposes of the reader/listener, as well as on those of the author/speaker.

It follows, then, that the meaning of a text is a matter of interpretation based on inference of the situation. Inference, again, is based on the context and certain assumptions about the context of a text. Grammatical competence alone will not provide meaning. Thus, interpretation of a text requires the reader's ability to make certain assumptions by applying his/her values, intentions, and purposes.

In short, discourse competence is the ability to interpret a series of sentences or utterances in order to form a meaningful whole and to achieve coherent texts that are relevant to a given context. Success in both cases is dependent on the knowledge shared by both the author/reader and reader/listener -- knowledge of the real world, knowledge of the linguistic code, knowledge of the discourse structure, and knowledge of the social setting.

Strategic Competence:

The fourth and last component of communicative competence in the Canale and Swain framework is strategic competence. It refers to the coping strategies that communicators employ to initiate, terminate, maintain, repair, and redirect communication (Richards and Rodgers, 1986). It involves the use of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies to compensate for gaps in the language user's knowledge of the code or for breakdown in communication for other reasons (Omaggio, 1986).

This component is qualitatively different from the other three in that the more communicatively competent an individual becomes, the less he or she needs to draw on strategic competence (Omaggio, 1986). However, even educated native speakers sometimes experience breakdowns in their communication with others for a variety of reasons and must rely on this component for the successful transmission of messages.

This component of communicative competence is based on the assumption that there is no speaker, listener, reader or writer of a language who knows a language perfectly and uses it appropriately in all social interactions (Savignon, 1983). The language user usually makes the best use of what he/she knows, of the context she/she has experienced, to get the message across. Communicative competence, according to Savignon (1983), is relative and involves the use of language strategies to compensate for imperfect knowledge of rules, or limiting factors in their application such as fatigue, distraction, and inattention. As Savignon says, strategic competence is analogous to coping or survival strategies (Savignon, 1972b, cited in Savignon, 1983: 41). Adult native speakers routinely cope with a variety of factors that can result in communication failure in situations such as these:

-- when they cannot think of a word;

-- when they need to find ways of keeping the channels of communication open while they pause to collect their thoughts;

-- adapting when their messages are misunderstood.

Both native and non-native speakers alike use strategies for coping with limitations in their knowledge or restrictions in the use of that knowledge in a particular setting. This ability to communicate within restrictions, thus, includes an ability to adapt one's communicative strategies to a variety of changing and often unexpected interpersonal conditions. Rephrasing, repetition, emphasis, seeking clarification, circumlocution, avoidance (of words, structures, topics), hesitation, guessing, and even message modification (for example, a speaker's decision to have a Swiss cheese sandwich on whole wheat rather than on rye) are among the strategies used to meet the demands of on-going communication (Savignon, 1983). Thus, strategic competence involves adaptation which requires one to take the perspective of the other participants in a transaction, "to empathize with the perspective of others" (Savignon, 1983).

In sum, the effective use of coping strategies is important for communicative competence in all contexts and distinguishes highly competent communicators from those who are less competent. Strategic competence is, thus, an essential component in a descriptive framework for communicative competence.

Summary:

Communicative competence means both underlying knowledge about language and communicative language use and skill, or how well an individual can perform with this knowledge base in actual communication situations. Communicative competence implies that the target language learner has the knowledge of the rules of language use, sociolinguistic and contextual competence as well as grammatical competence. Theory also indicates that communicative competence involves the use of all four macroskills of a language -- listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

According to Lessow-Hurley (1990), communicative competence includes the ability to use a language in appropriate ways in various social contexts. For her, communicative competence in school includes Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP), the ability to function in context-reduced settings, where situational clues are minimal. In this study, which investigates the English language-based problems of two foreign student groups studying in an American university, communicative competence means the ability of non-native speakers to use English as the medium of learning.

B. REVIEW OF RELATED RESEARCH LITERATURE ON THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE-BASED PROBLEMS OF FOREIGN STUDENTS

This review assesses the research and literature on the English language-based difficulties of foreign students. The main purpose of this section is to answer the following questions:

1. What does previous research and literature indicate about the English language-based problems of foreign students?
2. What does previous research and theory suggest are unanswered and key questions or important areas on the English language-based problems of foreign students?
3. What specific and answerable questions will this study focus upon?

RESEARCH AND LITERATURE ON THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE-BASED PROBLEMS OF FOREIGN STUDENTS IN THE UNITED STATES:

Research on foreign students in the United States has mainly focused on the following aspects:

(1) admission and academic performance;

(2) comparisons of nationality groups and interactions between American and foreign students;

(3) psychological and social impact of the sojourn on foreign students;

(4) the relationship of academic achievement and adjustment;

(5) what happens to foreign students on returning home. (Marion, 1986).

(6) Foreign students' adjustment problems, and the process of their adaptation, and coping (Hull, 1978).

However, no extensive study has been done in nearly two decades documenting the nature and extent of the English language-based problems of foreign students in the United States. Although a few sporadic studies have addressed this area in the United States, the English language-based problems have formed only a small component of these studies. This will be evident from the following analysis.

Hill (1966) conducted a study of a group of Indonesian, Thai, Pakistani, and Indian students' perceptions of their problems while enrolled at Indiana University. Of a total population of 150, 78 students completed a personal data questionnaire and a checklist covering academic, financial, housing, religious, personal, and social problems.

The results of the study indicated the following: (1) All groups experienced substantial difficulties with academic, personal, and financial problems. (2) The academic problems were greatest and were largely related to lack of English language proficiency. (3) The female students experienced substantially greater difficulties than the male students. (4) According to nationality, the Thai students experienced substantially more difficulties with academic problems involving English than did other groups. (5) Thai and Indian students had greater difficulty in getting acquainted with U.S. academic methods than did the Indonesian and Pakistani students.

Sharma (1971) sought to identify and analyze adjustment problems experienced by foreign non-European graduate students enrolled in selected universities in the state of North Carolina. Data on academic, personal, and social problems were collected by means of a student problem inventory and interviews. A total of 195 out of 374 foreign graduate students from the Far East, South

Asia, the Middle East, Africa, and Latin America completed the questionnaires.

Results of the study indicated the following: (1) Foreign students attending universities in North Carolina considered the following English language-based academic problems as most difficult: giving oral reports, participating in class discussions, taking notes in class, understanding lectures, and preparing written reports. (2) Among the most severe personal problems were homesickness, inadequate housing, insufficient funds, food, and finding companionship with the opposite sex. (3) The most severe social problems included getting used to American social customs, making personal friends with American students, and being accepted by social groups. (4) Students from South Asia seemed to make better academic adjustments than students from the Far East or Latin America. (5) Length of residence in the United States, age upon entering the United States, varied educational backgrounds and home backgrounds, and the campus of enrollment seemed to have little effect on the problems of foreign students. (6) Students from South Asia, those who studied Agriculture, Engineering, and Physical Sciences, and those who were self-supporting, were found to make better academic adjustment than those who came from the Far East or Latin America, those who studied social sciences and those who got money from home, respectively.

Sharma (1971) recommended that foreign students be thoroughly tested for their competency in the use of English for academic purposes prior to departure from their home countries. She further recommended that the admitting institutions in the U.S. should offer remedial programs in the English language.

Win (1971) conducted a study to identify the problems of Japanese and Indian students at the University of Southern California in six areas: academic, financial, housing, religious, personal, and social. 73% of the Indian students and 56% of the Japanese students at the University completed a checklist appraising difficulties met with in six areas. The Chi-square values were obtained for each of the 50 items on a checklist to reveal differences between the two nationality groups.

The results of the study indicated that Japanese students encountered many more English language-based difficulties than did Indian students in registration, and understanding lectures and textbooks, reciting in class, and preparing oral and appropriate courses. Both groups of students needed the help of an adviser in all six problem areas but generally showed unwillingness to seek it from foreign student advisers except in legal and financial matters.

Hull (1978) conducted a study of how foreign students go about coping with higher educational environment in the United States and establishing emotional security within a culture distinct from their own. He defined coping behavior as behavior utilized by an individual in a potentially stressful situation to establish emotional security while retaining his self-esteem. The hypotheses examined were: (1) Entry into the foreign educational environment produces stress, sometimes anxiety; (2) Dealing with stress or anxiety is a function of self-esteem; (3) Self-esteem includes both self-judgments and judgments received from others; and (4) Various options of a behavioral nature are available to the individual in an anxiety-provoking situation. Data were collected by means of individual case studies of the foreign students from various countries.

The results indicated the following: (1) In spite of the language requirements and test scores presented in advance, some foreign students were unable to function satisfactorily in English; (2) The foreign students experienced frustration of being unable to communicate effectively in academic English. (3) The non-immigrant foreign students were not able to work outside the university and had acute financial difficulties; (4) Foreign students found themselves still adjusting to the fast pace of the educational system at the same time that they had to other new variables of living in a foreign country: food, housing, absence of friends, and so forth; (5) Some foreign students handled depression by ignoring it and by going on and some by becoming more introverted and even isolated; (6) Those who were married presented a different pattern of adjustment than those who were single; (7) Few foreign students had American friends and expressed disappointments with establishing American friends; (8) On the average, foreign students did well academically; (9) The sojourn itself was considered a period of intellectual and personal growth, and educationally rewarding.

Sadtono (1979) reviewed English language teaching in Indonesia and pointed out that inefficient methods and materials and poor classroom conditions were among the causes of the English language problems of the Indonesian students. He referred to a lack of innovative and efficient methodology of teaching English in Indonesia. He found no consistency in the methodology used; the most common methods used were the audiolingual and grammar-translation methods. Sadtono pointed out some additional causes of the poor English instructional system in Indonesia: overcrowded classrooms, small number of hours, poor classroom condition and poor materials for teaching English at the junior, senior high and vocational school and university levels in Indonesia. About the status of the English instruction at the junior high school level, Sadtono (1979) added, "At present the method being tried is basically the audiolingual method.... [instructional] conditions are far from ideal. Average class hours amount to four a week. The average class size is 45 students, and often a desk for two students is occupied by three. Quite a few of the classrooms are poorly partitioned and loud voices -- particularly during drills -- from one room always disturb another." He noted that similar conditions existed in English instruction at other levels as well.

Sadtono (1979) noted that there was a lack of materials essential for effectively teaching English in Indonesia. There were not enough books for general reading for the elementary and intermediate levels, materials essential for developing student motivation to pursue the study of English. Also, reported Sadtono, English magazines and books were not abundant and they were expensive, so only a few could afford to buy them.

Sadtono (1979) further reported that visual aids were never used. Also, audio aids such as the tape recorder and the record player were not used in teaching English (except in the English Department of the Teacher's College of the State University).

Sadtono reported that the following reasons accounted for the absence of the use of audio-visual aids in teaching English in Indonesia: (1) It was very expensive to set up a good language laboratory. (2) The maintenance of a language laboratory posed a special problem -- the spare parts were not easily available in Indonesia; as a result, some of the language laboratories lay idle. (3) Learners could not afford to buy tape recorders. (4) Learners did not know how to use a tape recorder effectively.

Mahdavi-Harsini (1981) conducted a study of the adjustment problems of foreign students and the sources of help sought for solutions at Indiana University, Bloomington. The purposes of this study were: (1) to identify adjustment problems perceived by foreign students from Iran, Malaysia, Nigeria, Saudi Arabia, and Taiwan); (2) to identify the sources of help which foreign students seek for bringing about solutions to these problems; and (3) to compare the adjustment problems and sources of help sought by these five groups of foreign students. Data were collected by means of the 132-item Michigan International Student Problem Inventory developed by John Porter (1962).

The results of the Mahdavi-Harsini study indicate the following: (1) Foreign students are most concerned about social-personal problems such as home-sickness, loneliness, trying to make friends, insufficient personal-social counseling, and not feeling at ease in public. (2) The problem with the English language was the second most compelling area. Students experienced difficulties in reading, writing, speaking, and understanding the English language. Satisfactory remedial English services seemed not to have been provided for foreign students. Orientation services did not appear to have helped sufficiently in meeting the needs of foreign students in this area. (3) Services to help foreign students in dealing with their academic, living-dining, and financial problems were perceived as less than satisfactory. (4) Foreign students seemed not only to have problems that were common to all of them but also problems peculiar to their own national groups. For example, Malaysian students expressed a greater need for improving their conditions in the area of living-dining than did the rest of the population in the study. Again, the Nigerian students expressed a lesser need for improving their ability in the area of English language than did the rest of the population in the study. That means, other nationality groups needed more help with the English language than did the Nigerian students. (5) Perception of problems was not affected by the sex of the students. (6) Length of stay in the United States did not make any significant difference in the perception of problems by foreign students. Also, it did not significantly influence the foreign students' preference for sources of help for the problems selected for the study.

Hines and Rutherford (1981) conducted a study to investigate participation patterns in two university ESL classes. It particularly addressed the question: Is class participation patterns in university ESL classes differentially distributed between Asian and non-Asian students? Two classes were observed. For Class I, three 50-minute sessions were videotaped by a technician. Prior to the tapings, the students and their teacher had familiarized themselves with videotaping through regularly scheduled class activities in which oral presentations had been recorded and reviewed. Data for Class 2 were collected through in-class observation and coding, and audio-taping in three class sessions.

The results of the study indicated the following: (1) In terms of participation in the frequency of turns in the self-selections (e.g., paralinguistic cues such as hand-raising, eye contact with teachers, etc.), there were significant differences between the Asian and non-Asian students. The relationship that emerged between ethnicity and total number of turns taken was that Asian students took significantly fewer speaking turns than their non-Asian classmates (X = 75.78, p. <.001). Although they comprised roughly 61% of the students in the class, the Asians took only 37% of the total of 293 turns. (2) In terms of self-initiated participation, the Asians spoke less often than did the non-Asians (X = 48.89, p<.001). In this case, their proportion of the total number of self-selections made amounted to only 34%. This means that Asian students did not often take the initiative in class discussions. Their participation was largely dependent upon teacher solicitation.

The extent to which the findings of this study typify most university classes in which there are different nationality groups remains to be determined through an analysis of a larger body of data. An ethnographic study might pursue the question of how various ethnic groups differ from each other in terms of the various forms of classroom participation involving the proficient use of English in asking questions, participating in a group discussion, presenting a seminar paper, answering questions to other students in the class, elaborating on any answer, and so forth.

Syananondh (1983) investigated the ability of Thai-speaking foreign graduate students to understand spoken English upon arrival in the United States, and the progress they made over a period of 5 years. The study also sought to determine foreign students' self perceived causes of difficulty in English listening comprehension, and how they attempted to improve their English listening comprehension skills. Data were collected by means of a survey questionnaire sent to 300 Thai-speaking graduate students currently attending colleges or universities throughout the United States. 212 respondents, representing 70.06% of the target population, were finally used as subjects for the study.

The major findings of the study were: (1) The initial problems of Thai graduate students studying in U.S. institutions of higher education involved difficulty in understanding spoken English in different communicative situations in the United States. On the average, they understood about half of what was said to or around them by the native speakers. (2) Different English pronunciation taught in Thailand, inadequate English vocabulary, and lack of training in English conversation were perceived by the students as the major causes of their difficulty in English listening comprehension. (3) Level of foreign students' English comprehension and level of comprehensibility of their spoken English were found positively and significantly correlated. (4) Methods widely used by most Thai-speaking foreign students for improving their English listening skills were watching TV, talking with American people, and listening to lectures.

The implications of this study for teaching and learning English listening comprehension are suggested as follows: (1) It is essential that Thai-speaking foreign students acquire English listening skills accurately, and they should not be urged to speak in the target language before their listening skills have been developed. (2) Tapes, records, and video tapes of actual use of spoken English by the native speakers in a variety of communicative situations can be used as instructional aids in teaching students English listening comprehension. (3) In order to gain maximum progression in English listening comprehension, students, if studying in the U.S. should be allowed to stay in this country up to two years. (4) Students should be provided with enough appropriate vocabulary which is normally used in everyday English by the native speakers.

Atari (1983) did a contrastive study of the stylistic features of Arab and American university students' written English. The study addressed the problems that Arab students encounter when trying to convey a message in written English. The researcher hypothesized that these problems are caused by the communicative strategies used by the Arab students. An example of this is that Arab students often begin their compositions with a broad statement of a general state of affairs before introducing the topic sentence. They also tend to elaborate on one constituent sub-topic at the expense of the other sub-topics in the text. Such strategies of topic introduction and topic development make it difficult for the native reader to ascertain the writer's intended message.

The sources of data for the study comprised 30 letters of complaints and 30 letters of promising written by two groups of students: Arab students majoring in English at Bethlehem University, West Bank, Jordan (now occupied by Israel) and American students in graduate linguistics program at American University in Washington, D.C. The study adopts a functional approach to the data analysis by utilizing insights from speech-act theory, pragmatics, ethnography of communication and cognitive psychology.

The study indicated that the Arab college students selected for this research tended to follow the following strategies: to include a broad statement in the opening sections of their compositions before the topic sentence is introduced, to elaborate in one topic frame and not the others, and to neglect to connect the constituent topic frames of the composition.

The study concluded that the strategies of composing in English used by Arab students ran counter to the native reader's expectations. Thus, the message intended by the Arab writer was not clearly conveyed to the American reader.

Van Naerssen, et al. (1984) conducted a two-part study of classroom communication skills and strategies with the purpose of enhancing the experience of Chinese graduate students (intending to visit the United States). In the first part of the study, communication skills and strategies in graduate science courses taught in the U.S. universities were examined. In the second part of the study, the information of the first part was incorporated into the graduate-level oral communication classes in the People's Republic of China. The purpose of this part of the study was: (1) to examine apparent cultural differences in more detail, (2) to determine whether the strategies being taught from the study's first part were those most needed by graduate students going to study in universities of the West, (3) to orient Chinese scientists going to the West at a more general level to classroom interaction, and (4) to orient foreign teachers and scholars working in China.

Data were collected by means of audiotape and contextual notes of classroom interaction. The five courses observed/taped were Methods of Finite Element; Quantum Chemistry; Documentation Readings for Geophysics; Micro-Computers; and Seismology. The analysis of the data focused on the following communication features: total class time for teachers and students; student and teacher initiation of interactional frames; techniques used by students initiating interaction; and non-verbal feedback from students.

The results of the study were: (1) The data from the U.S. classes dispell the notion that teachers in the U.S. talk significantly less than Chinese teachers, at least at the graduate level. The lowest percentage of teacher time among the U.S. classes was 88.1%, and the lowest among the Chinese classes was 93.7%. The highest among the U.S. classes was 98.8% and among the Chinese 99.6%. The data also showed that even among the Chinese classes, there can be some negotiation or local allocation of teacher/student time (e.g., some management interaction is allowed during the class time such as "Do you have a copy of ...?" "Can you see the overhead transparency?" "Come to the front," etc.); (2) The overall average percentage of student initiated interaction was significantly lower for the Chinese students than for the U.S. students. Chinese students exhibited most of the same reservations many U.S. students have about asking qestions in class: shyness, not wanting to look foolish by asking a "dumb" question, not wanting to waste class time on questions that only one person has, etc. But in addition to these motives, there were also additional causes for reluctance to ask the professor a question. If the professor does not know the answer he/she might lose face. Furthermore, it disrupts the teacher's planning which would be considered rude. The teacher is pre-allocated the full class period on the assumption that questions may be asked after class. (3) The results indicated a pattern in regard to the way students initiated interaction: since the Chinese students observed in this study were older (in their 20's and 30's) and were accustomed to work situations in which there was little bidding, the students did not bid. That is, they did not seek permission verbally or non-verbally to speak; (4) There was very little eye contact between the professor and students in Chinese classes, except when the professor was at the blackboard, pointing to information at the blackboard, and talking to and facing the class. During one lecture the professor talked/read the lecture to the upper right corner of the room and the students had their heads down over their notebooks taking notes/dictation. There were almost no facial expressions indicating comprehension or non-comprehension, agreement or disagreement, nor were nods used as positive feedback. The most common changes of facial expressions were occasional yawns. Although no similar observations were made of U.S. classes, the absence of some non-verbal facial feedback in Chinese classes reported by visiting U.S. lecturers is indirect evidence for such feedback being a fairly common pattern in U.S. classes; (5) The primary cause for these classroom interaction differences between the United States and the People's Republic of China seemed to lie in differing educational philosophies which, in turn, define the roles of the teacher and the student. In cultures with Western European traditions there is more of a socratic tradition, i.e., of skepticism, of questions, as part of the learning process. On the other hand, in the People's Republic of China, there is a tradition of mastery of great or significant works be it in Science, Art, Literature, etc. Once the works of the great masters, leaders, are learned, then one can apply the principles to solving problems or be creative in other ways. This usually involves much memorization.

Arani (1985) conducted a study which was primarily concerned with the types and the causes of the major structural errors made by a selected sample of Iranian university students when they write in imaginative and expository mode in English. Judgment of the communicative value of errors was one of the secondary objectives of this study (conducted by three native speakers who used a 5-point scale). The subjects for the study were 20 Iranian students who were in various fields of science and engineering at the State University of New York at Buffalo. Data for the study were collected by using the following methods: examination of 32 compositions written by the subjects, interviews with the subjects and a questionnaire filled out by subjects.

It was found that in general the students committed more errors in expository writing than in imaginative writing. Also, the order of rank of the error types was varied in the expository compositions versus the imaginative ones.

The 891 errors utilized in this study fell in the following 10 major categories: mistakes with articles, prepositions, incorrect and confusing tenses, number, conjunctions, adjectives, subjects and predicates, verb phrases and pronouns.

Interference from the students' native language (Persian), the complexity of the English language, students' incomplete knowledge or ignorance of certain structures, the interference of conversational English into written English, the transfer of training, lapses of memory, lack of sufficient practice in formal writing, unfamiliarity with the requirements of written English, and pressure of communication were among the major causes of error occurrence.

In addition, it was found that in general the most recurrent errors were incidentally the errors which hindered normal comprehension by native speakers the most. In this relation, it was concluded that "seriousness" was not necessarily related to frequency.

Within the limits of the study, it was concluded that the students were essentially asystematic in correcting their errors or for that matter in committing errors, and that their knowledge of certain grammatical categories was more complete than it was of others.

Moore (1987) in his Understanding, Advising, and Teaching International Students states that the foreign student accepted into a U.S. college or university is expected to have essentially the same type and amount of knowledge as newly admitted American students. It comes, says Moore (1987), as quite a shock to some American professors to discover that this is not true, and to the foreign student this realization can be devastating. Many foreign students, who were high achievers in their home country's educational systems, become extremely frustrated when they find that they are "academically lacking," often because of their difficulties in the English language (Moore, 1987).

According to Moore (1987), the following are some of the difficulties of foreign students: Culture Shock: All foreign students suffer "some degree of culture shock." The symptoms of "culture shock" can be homesickness, frustration and even hostility to their host institution, criticism of people, customs, services, and bureaucracy, and isolation. According to Dalili (1982), these symptoms can cause "psychological barriers" which delay learning and the improvement of English language skills. The most severe academic problems of foreign students are:

communicating their thoughts in English, improving their English to the level necessary to do well academically, completing written examinations in the same length of time as American students, presenting oral reports, taking notes, and writing reports. In other words, most of their academic problems are directly related to a lack of proficiency in the English language and to differences between the educational systems of the United States and their home countries.

Moore (1987) considers age to be a significant factor in academic problems. Younger students seem to have a higher incidence of academic problems than older students, while older students tend to have fewer academic, social and personal problems. Older students are supposed to be more mature, ambitious, and motivated than younger students. In addition, married students have fewer academic, social, and personal problems than single students and graduate students have fewer academic problems than undergraduate students (Moore, 1987).

Moore (1987) points out what he considers to be some important factors contributing to a foreign student's academic success: (1) Natural Inquisitiveness and Self-Motivation: Despite the plethora of problems -- academic, social and personal, experienced by the foreign students, they generally perform academically as well or better than their U.S. counterparts and have a very high success rate. Like American students, there are foreign students on the Honor Roll, placed on probation and academic suspension, and earning average or above average grades. A variable contributing to academic success of foreign students seems to be that they bring with them natural inquisitiveness and self-motivation to study (Moore, 1987). (2) Sharpeners vs. Levelers: Moore reported that, according to Forgus and Melamed, foreign students may be "sharpeners" rather than the "levelers" of their own societies. The "sharpeners" are more differentiated in their thinking, more articulate, adventure-seeking and exposing themselves to the unknown. They are also more adaptable to new situations and more creative. "Levelers" tend to be more security-oriented, seek the familiar, avoid the unknown, and tend to be more closed-minded. This distinction between "sharpeners" and "levelers" may help account for the differences in motivation in foreign students who utilize various tactics to compensate for the handicaps of language, financial difficulties, culture shock, and differences in educational systems. (3) Rote Memorization System: This habit may enable foreign students to build a network of cues needed to retain information and retrieve it from memory.

RESEARCH ON THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE-BASED PROBLEMS OF FOREIGN STUDENTS IN THE UNITED KINGDOM:

de Winter-Hebron (1984) conducted a case study in order to explore the causes of Third World students' English language-based problems with studying, research and written communication skills in a British university. The subjects were postgraduate students (i.e., students admitted to M.Phil. or Ph.D. degree programs) from Third World countries who were pursuing studies in Architecture at the University of Newcastle-upon-Tyne and were also taking a Writing course at Newcastle Polytechnic's Student Writing Center. The investigator, who was the instructor in this course, sought to uncover the English language-based academic problems of foreign students for over sixteen months side by side with the organization of courses to help them. The methods used were classroom interaction and informal get-togethers, reading of present and past students' essays and dissertations, and Gibbs' study organization anxiety checklist (Gibbs, 1981).

The results of the study indicated the following: (1) The working speed of foreign students was slower than that of native students because of their having to work in English as a second/foreign language; (2) The female students were concerned about not being able to keep track of what they had done, while the male students were concerned about where to work best and the problem of leaving things till the last minute; (3) In terms of finding research materials from their own countries, foreign students were found to be humble petitioners rather than being actively involved in the search process; (4) Students were unfamiliar with the research techniques needed; (5) Foreign students' cultural attitude toward learning seemed to interfere with their learning at a western institution; they were more inclined than the home students to accept received ideas without critically examining them; (6) Foreign students were treating the reading materials in a manner which was little more than surface processing; and (7) Studying one's own country's problems away from one's country in an alien tongue and remote from relevant materials led some foreign students to frustration and bewilderment, not to so-called "critical distancing."

A composite picture of the foreign students' situation is presented by Sen (1970) who carried out, by questionnaire, English test and interview, an extensive study of 2,367 foreign students and nurses from 130 countries studying in the United Kingdom from 1964 to 1966 (cited in Weir, 1982: 89). The study focused on the foreign students' academic and language difficulties and adjustment to British society. She subsequently followed this work with a study of how successful they were with their courses. She was not concerned solely with the language difficulties they encountered as her aim was more to describe the interaction of the general criteria: academic ability, English language proficiency, adequate financial resources and adeptness in adjusting to new social situations. Weir (1982, p. 89) notes that Sen considered academic study and welfare problems inseparable for most students. She also raised the question of the extent to which language is criterial to a student's academic success. Weir (1982) further notes that Sen (1970) found English language to be non-significant as a predictor of academic success. Sen (1970, p. 113, cited in Weir, 1982: 90) claimed, on the basis of evidence from her follow-up study: "that the extent of the use of and familiarity with the English language has little relevance to their final performance. This seems to contradict the experience of teachers in this country and in the United States who have placed great emphasis on the English language proficiency of overseas students." She seems to have arrived at this conclusion (pp. 153-4) from the results of student performance in 5 sub-tests of the shorter version of the Davies Test. She found that these tests did not discriminate between the passes and failures for the qualification courses considered. She argues (p.154), for practical purposes, the tests do not, alone, provide a useful guide to final performance in these courses. Of course, the diagnostic as against the predictive value of the tests is a different matter. However, she added (p. 163), "... the criteria of final performance used in the present survey, i.e., success or failure, are crude. Certain modifications of the test in the light of the present results and its validation on the basis of actual examination marks with larger samples for each type of course might provide a useful instrument for the selection of overseas students."

As well as considering the effectiveness of language testing as a predictor of academic success Sen (1970, cited in Weir, 1982: 90), sought to establish the extent of the language problems students faced. She (pp. 161-2) points out an important caveat: "the relative proportions of students who are willing to admit difficulties--whether academic or personal -- may not always give an accurate picture of the extent to which such difficulties are encountered. It is our impression, supported we believe by the general tenor of the figures reported, that the picture these students and nurses present of themselves is unduly favourable and optimistic. This suggests that where problems appear or criticisms are voiced, they deserve more, rather than less, attention than the cold tabulations would imply."

Earlier in her study, Sen (1970, pp. 57-60, cited in Weir, 1982: 90-91) drew attention to the serious nature of some of the English language-based problems. Over a third of the 2,367 foreign students found writing essays in English difficult, and a large number had difficulties in following lectures and tutorials in English. If one examines her relative figures for different national groupings they point to what may be an even greater cause for concern in the future, namely the worse plight of the foreign as compared to Commonwealth students (Weir, 1982). Sen noted that the Middle Eastern students, who scored fewer than the other groups in the Davies test, "... on the whole seem to find most difficulty with their studies. Only few expressed no difficulty in lectures, tutorials and in contacting their teachers in English, and a high proportion found writing essays and reference reading 'very difficult.'" She noted (p. 59, cited in Weir, 1982: 91) 44% reported taking lecture notes in English as a difficulty and 40% had difficulty with the speed at which English was spoken. Over a third had difficulty with accent and just under a third had difficulty in understanding idioms and phrases of British English.

A majority of the students in Sen's study (cited in Weir, 1982: 91), were from the Commonwealth. In terms of their previous use of English as a medium of instruction,the earlier age at which they had begun to learn English, and their use of English at home, Sen found they had considerably more exposure to the English language than their foreign counterparts. The English ability of the "foreign students" will, in all probability, be lower because of a much more limited exposure to the language, and it might be reasonable to infer that these students are likely to encounter language difficulties proportionate to this in their academic courses. The extent of the language problems brought to light by Sen's study (1970) of predominantly Commonwealth students was bad enough, but a similar survey carried out today will reveal an even greater incidence of problems in the academic context caused by language disability (Weir, 1982).

Davies (1977, p. 36, cited in Weir, 1982: 91) raised this question of how serious a problem language is on the basis of his findings in a survey completed for the Scottish Education Department on the English proficiency of foreign students in Scotland in the non-university sector. Davies (1977) found in his survey that students ranked English language as being the most serious problem, followed by academic status, social contacts and accommodation.

Ryan (1979, cited in Weir, 1982: p. 92) quotes evidence from Campbell's (1974) study of undergraduate and post-graduate students following courses in technical subjects at the Loughborough City and Birmingham universities. Campbell concluded that difficulties students had in communication were not solely attributable to an insufficient proficiency in English, but more to a complex mixture of linguistic, academic, socio-cultural and practical problems. However, a majority of the students in Campbell's study did indicate that writing, speaking and understanding lectures in English were areas where they had particular difficulty.

Holes (1972) and Edwards (1978) have commented on foreign students' problems associated with cultural incommensurability. Edwards (1978) refers to the shyness of many South-East Asian students and Holes (1972) suggested this might be due to a combination of factors: lack of confidence in their English and fear of the English students' ridicule of clumsy or ill-formed sentences (especially in the case of the weakest students); a malaise induced by the unfamiliarity of a situation where the judgments might be questioned (particularly true of older students); and an ignorance, not so much of the language but of the cultural admissability of interrupting a lecturer or tutor to ask a question and simply how to ask the question. He quotes

Fishman (1972, quoted by Weir, 1982, p. 93): "native members of such (speech) networks slowly and unconsciously acquire sociolinguistic communicative competence with respect to appropriate language use. They are not necessarily aware of the norms that guide their sociolinguistic behavior. Newcomers to such networks or communities ... must discover these norms more rapidly, more painfully and therefore more consciously." This is evidenced in the way most foreign students ask questions, by approaching members of faculty after the class. This is a strategy which is perhaps indicative of a gap in their communicative competence, namely ignorance of the sociolinguistic conventions associated with asking questions in public.

Related to cultural problems are differences in previous educational backgrounds of foreign students. Edwards (1978) drew attention to the difficulties this may cause in terms of non-participation in a group discussion and problems arising out of self-teaching (cited in Weir, 1982:93). Singh (1963) drew attention to excessive deference to faculty and it would seem many overseas students have been taught to venerate their teachers, speaking only when spoken to or not answering for fear of losing face (cited in Weir,1982: 93). Edwards cites previous exposure to didactic teaching methodology and Singh mentions previous training by rote methods as factors influencing the students' preference for being told what to do rather than organize their own study. On the basis of observations in the classroom Edwards notes (p. 321): "the tendency to rote memorisation and regurgitation was apparent in some overseas learners' answers often with little cognisance of the question asked. "Many of these problems are also referred to by students themselves in the collection of overseas student essays entitled "Disappointed Guests" (Tajfel and Dawson, 1965, cited by Weir, 1982: 94).

Rogers (1977, p. 37 cited in Weir, 1982: 94) discovered in the courses he ran for post-graduate students in science and technology that despite much previous work in the language: "students have developed certain skills to the virtual neglect of others." Though they might be able to cope with the reading and writing demands of their courses, "they were unable to participate in academic discussions: even less were they able to take part in social activities outside the company of other foreign students in the same plight as themselves."

The United Kingdom Council for Overseas Student Affairs (UKCOSA, 1974, cited in Weir, 1982: p. 94-95) found a common problem was "reluctance to ask questions due to a fear of using English. This contributes to the formation of nationality groups where students hardly ever speak in English." Jordan and Mackay (1973, cited in Weir, 1982: 95) noted, "One of their biggest problems was to find the opportunity to practise speaking English with native English speakers ... Consequently they made slow progress with their spoken English." Edwards (1978, p. 314, cited in Weir, 1982: 95) found a similar pattern in her study of overseas nurses coming to study in the United Kingdom and concluded that the overseas learners' language problems lay mainly in the field of spoken English, "in both understanding and speaking. Over 78% admitted to having difficulties of some kind with this."

Jordan (1977, pp. 15-16, cited in Weir, 1982: 95) described how post-graduate students at Manchester and Newcastle heard most spoken English in a passive listening role, i.e., in situations where they were not called upon to respond at all, e.g., listening to lectures, the radio, and so forth, and therefore, with no check on comprehension. In his study, 70% listed understanding spoken English as their biggest difficulty on arrival in the United Kingdom and 50% mentioned their own speech problems of fluency and self-expression with most speaking for a maximum of an hour a day, but 40% for half an hour or less. 56% found it difficult to meet British people to converse with and this led to restrictions of opportunities for practising spoken language.

Davies (1965, p. 235, cited in Weir, 1982: p. 95) took a group of students studying overseas through the medium of English and compared them to an equivalent group in the United Kingdom, to see if any difference due to a short period of residence in the U.K. showed up. He discovered that in non-contextual listening tests the overseas group were inferior and concluded that this "could only be accounted for by their lack of exposure to everyday British English in Britain." Sen (1970) also found that 25% of the students surveyed admitted to having listening comprehension difficulties. It would seem likely, therefore, Morrison (1974) argued in his thesis, that lack of exposure to natural-spoken British English accounts for the initial difficulty that many experience on arrival (cited in Weir, 1982: p. 95).

Rogers (1977) carried out a survey in which students assessed their own language difficulties. The difficulties, in descending order of severity, noted by Rogers (1977, cited in Weir, 1982: 95) were with the following:

(1) Fluent conversation at an informal level:

McKenzie (1977) pointed out the serious problems Latin-Americans have particularly at the phonological level and Larter (1962, p. 121) provides evidence of this amongst the African students he taught at the technical level.

(2) Informal social interaction:

Edwards (1978, p. 319) noted that students had difficulties here: "with a high rate of mutual misunderstanding between overseas and indigene learners."

(3) Formal Subject Discussions and Seminars:

Edwards (1978) notes instances where: "they had difficulty in remaining linguistically coherent when attempting to answer at length or when joining in discussions." Edwards (pp. 314-26) comments that if one adds to this difficulty problems with accent and general difficulties in understanding the teaching staff, "the indigene learner's near total ellipsis when answering questions and the speed at which they do so," one has some idea of the factors which might inhibit participation. Edwards concludes that: "what learner-initiated participation there was in the classroom activities was dominated by indigenes."

(4) The Expression of Personal Viewpoint:

Rogers (1977) also conducted a series of interviews with members of staff who remarked on the following specific difficulties:

(a) Not knowing the meaning or appropriate use of many colloquial idioms. Edwards (1978, p. 315) also emphasized the difficulties caused by the casual style of discourse of certain tutors: "The use of slang or allusive language, which excludes the outsider, causes the overseas student to miss a lot of what goes on in the classroom. "Holes (1972) drew attention to the difficulties caused by the employment of excessive colloquialisms, slang and register switching, and quotes (p. 33) Winter (1971): "the distinctions between formal and informal language may be blurred in a lecture situation where there may be drastic change from formal to informal language when giving explanations ... it may be disastrous for the foreign student who may have been taught English in a combination of literary and formal English."

These difficulties in comprehension are often compounded, as Edwards (1978) observed, by the teaching staff themselves (p. 316): "The instances of inappropriate methods of presentation of practical procedures, inadequate explanation of theory and lack of advance organisation of material -- which were disturbingly frequent -- observed in the classroom would almost certainly compound the initial problems of overseas learners and may well account for the difficulties in understanding experienced by some indigenes."

(b) Not Playing an Active Part in Discussion: Restricted answers to questions (see Jordan, 1977).

(c) Too formal and polite.

(d) Little knowledge of topics of current interest commonly discussed by educated speakers.

(e) Difficulties with 'openers.' 'closers' and 'topic change.'

(f) Difficulty with humor of all kinds.

(g) Did not understand various conventions of non-verbal behavior.

In addition to these, Jordan (1977, cited in Weir, 1982: 97) drew attention to difficulties in:

(a) Understanding the variety of native-speaker accents.

(b) Communicating functionally especially in asking questions for appropriate purposes (Holes, 1972).

(c) Understanding lectures in general and taking notes (Sen, 1970, UKCOSA, 1974, Holes, 1972, pp. 29-30 and James, 1977, cited in Weir, 1982: 97).

One of the most serious problems for English servicing agencies in the universities is the disparate composition of the students they have to cater to as a result of different language backgrounds, different abilities in different skill areas, different subjects being studied in courses which make demands on different ranges of language skills, different previous learning experiences, different learning styles, etc.

According to Weir (1982), an uneven demand is made simultaneously on all the different English language-based academic study skills, and at different times in a course a different variety of skills is called for. Straker-Cook (1977, p. 5) holds the view that: "At least for post-graduates, attendance at initial lectures and talks, and participation in seminars and discussion groups, place a heavy demand on oral/aural skills in the earlier stages of their study." Jordan (1977, p. 17) agrees with this and for his 'typical student: "understanding native speakers of English will be his first major problem on arrival in Britain; the next major problem will be personal fluency and self-expression in English ... the latter will still be a problem after a few months mainly through lack of practice. "As the course develops," continues Jordan, "writing skills will eventually become more important and will generally (p.18) 'supersede understanding as a cause of major difficulty as written work has to be submitted."

Jordan (1977, p. 14) points to a general inability on the part of the overseas student to:

(a) Write academic English.

(b) Write short reports.

(c) Write concisely.

(d) Write quickly.

Holes (1972, p. 57, cited in Weir, 1982: 98) found that overseas students admitted to having a lot of difficulty in writing essays and reports in English on their own work. Nearly half of the post-graduate students in Jordan's survey wrote an average of five essays a term, each of about 2,500 words, and one-third wrote between two and five reports per term, each of about 4,000 words. As Larter (1962, p.121, cited in Weir, 1982: 98) pointed out that particular difficulties in this area may only surface when writing has to be done under the pressure of time constraints as in examinations and by then it may well be too late for remedial action.

The skill of reading is likely to remain important through most courses. Straker-Cook (1977, p. 45) noted: "the reading of specialist literature in English is the one skill that most students seem to have maintained prior to their arrival in Britain." However, Jordan (1977) still cited a general inability on the part of the overseas student to read quickly or understand the complexities of academic prose. He (p. 16) found that the average student had only one speed (i.e., slow) for silent reading -- about 150-160 words per minute.

Edwards (1978, pp. 316-317) noted similar difficulties with reading comprehension and adds that of reading aloud, e.g., the ward reports some nurses have to make. UKCOSA (1974) cited difficulty in reading effectively as a common problem and also difficulty in understanding examination questions. Holes (1972) referred to slow reading as a universal complaint as well as a widespread lack of guidance in what to read. He reported that the cause of slow reading, "... in some measure due to a reverential attitude to books in general: each one read must be summarised with a great expenditure of time and effort. There was no skimming of books for ideas and information. This was the first time some students had to read books in any quantity, with specific aims in mind." He added (p. 66) that it was not the actual level of linguistic difficulty in the text which caused problems, but terminological difficulties in new subjects which were the biggest obstacle in reading, as shown by the large number of students (among them the most fluent) who read their textbooks with a dictionary at hand.

Morrison (1974, p. 6) also drew attention to the possibility that the crucial factor might be the individual's language ability when starting the course and that average improvement during a one-year course is insignificant when compared to differences between individuals on starting. He refers to work done by Binyon (1972, cited in Weir, 1982: p. 99) at Gothenburg who commented that some students were better on starting than others were after a year's study. This may, in some cases, indicate the low value to be placed on any remedial teaching they receive. Mason's (1971) argument is that "at least for many intermediate to advanced foreign students ... intensive E.F.L. work may be a waste of time." Morrison (1974) argues that improvements in students' performance, as a result of learning experiences evidenced at the Universities of Leeds and Lancaster, would tend to emphasize that it is the difference between students' abilities at the start of the program rather than a question of the extent or lack of any improvement in language ability due to remedial English courses which is of central importance (Weir, 1982).

Summary:

(a) What Do Previous Research and Theory Indicate about the English Language-based Problems of Foreign Students?

This review of research and related literature indicates that foreign students in both the U.S. and U.K. had serious English language-based problems. It also becomes evident from this review that the English language-based academic problems have been the subject of extensive studies in the United Kingdom, whereas they have formed only a small component of studies that have compared the general problems of foreign students in the United States. No extensive study has been done documenting the nature and extent of the English language-based problems of foreign students in the United States.

Furthermore, the problem of foreign students indicates that there should be some kind of early warning system which will enable the receiving institutions, that accept students with deficiencies in the English language and related study skills, to ensure that the necessary remedial instruction in the areas is provided.

This review of research also points out a large number of problems (including English language-based problems) of foreign students investigated in the past two decades or so. These problems can be summarized under the following categories:

1. THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE-BASED ACADEMIC STUDY SKILLS PROBLEMS OF FOREIGN STUDENTS:

Foreign students have serious academic reading and study skills problems which are largely related to their proficiency in the English language (Hill, 1966). There is a significant correlation between ability in the English language and social adjustment (Ursura, 1969).

2. COMPARATIVE ANALYSES OF THE VARIOUS KINDS OF PROBLEMS (OF FOREIGN STUDENTS) AND THE DEGREE OF SEVERITY OF EACH:

Foreign students' problems can be of various kinds: academic (including English language-based problems), personal, financial, etc. (Hill, 1966). Comparative analyses indicate that the degree of severity of these problems varies. English language constitutes the most serious problem followed by academic status, social contacts and accommodation (Davies, 1977).

3. THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE-BASED PROBLEMS AS WELL AS OTHER KINDS OF PROBLEMS DIFFER ACROSS NATIONALITY GROUPS OF FOREIGN STUDENTS:

The problems of foreign students vary across nationality groups (Hill, 1966). Similarly, the English language and social adjustment problems also vary across nationality groups, world areas, sex, age, type of student, language spoken in the home, length of stay in the United States (Ursura, 1969). Sen (1970) found that overseas students from the non-Commonwealth countries had greater difficulties than those from the British Commonwealth of Nations. This was possibly due to the fact that in terms of previous use of English as a medium of instruction, the earlier age at which they had begun to learn English and their use of English at home, Commonwealth students had considerably more exposure to the English language than their non-Commonwealth classmates. According to Morrison (1974), overseas students who spent some time in the United Kingdom were superior in listening to students studying in their home countries through the medium of English. This could only be accounted for by their (students not studying in the United Kingdom) lack of exposure to natural spoken everyday British English (Davies, 1965). According to Sharma (1971), students from South Asia seemed to make better academic adjustments than students from the Far East or Latin America. According to Win(1971), the Japanese students encountered many more difficulties than Indian students in registration, and understanding lectures, and textbooks, reciting in class, and preparing for oral reports and appropriate courses in English. Mahdavi-Harsini (1981) reported that foreign students had problems peculiar to their national groups. The Nigerian students expressed a lesser need for improving their English than other groups. However, length of stay and sex did not make any significant difference in the perception of problems by foreign students (Mahdavi-Harsini, 1981). According to Sharma too (1971), length of stay in the United States, educational backgrounds and campus of enrollment seemed to have little effect on the problems of foreign students.

4. THE GENERAL ENGLISH LANGUAGE-BASED PROBLEMS OF FOREIGN STUDENTS:

Sharma (1971) reported that, for foreign students in the United States, the following formed the most serious academic problems: giving oral reports, participating in class discussions, taking notes in class, understanding lectures, and preparing written reports in English. Sen (1970) reported that foreign students in the United Kingdom had difficulty writing essays, following lectures and tutorials in English. According to Rogers (1977), overseas students were unable to participate in academic discussions. A common problem was a reluctance to ask questions due to a fear of using English (UKCOSA, 1974). This contributed to the formation of nationality groups where students hardly ever spoke English (UKCOSA, 1974). According to Mahdavi-Harsini (1981), foreign students had difficulties in reading, writing, speaking, and understanding the English language. Campbell (1974) reported that majority of overseas students in his study indicated that writing, speaking and understanding lectures in English were areas where they had particular difficulties. According to

Edwards (1978), English language problems lay mainly in the area of spoken English, in both understanding and speaking. Over 78% admitted to having difficulties of some kind with this. Jordan (1977) found that foreign students had the following general difficulties with writing academic English: writing short reports, writing concisely, and writing quickly.

5. ENGLISH LANGUAGE-RELATED SPECIFIC READING DIFFICULTIES OF FOREIGN STUDENTS:

Foreign students had a general inability to read quickly or understand the complexities of academic prose. They had slow silent reading speed, about 150-160 words per minute (Jordan, 1977; Holes, 1972). Edwards (1978) reported foreign students' difficulties with reading comprehension and reading aloud. Holes (1972) found foreign students' difficulty in reading effectively and difficulty in understanding examination questions, skimming for ideas and information, performing large quantities of readings, linguistic difficulty in text, and terminological difficulty in new subjects. de Winter-Hebron (1984) reported that foreign students were treating the reading materials in a manner which was little more than surface processing.

6. FOREIGN STUDENTS' PROBLEMS OF SOCIOLINGUISTIC COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE RELATED TO VERBAL AND NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION IN ENGLISH:

Cultural incommensurability is one of the problems. Many foreign students were shy. This may have been due to a combination of factors: lack of confidence in their English, fear of English students' ridicule of clumsy or ill-formed sentences (Edwards, 1978), and not knowing the cultural admissability of interrupting a lecturer or tutor to ask a question and how to ask the question.

In asking questions in class, Chinese students felt reservations such as shyness, not wanting to look foolish by asking a dumb question, not wanting to waste time on questions that may be only one person has, if the professor does not know the answer he might lose face, and it disrupts teacher's planning which is rude (van Naerssen, 1984).

Foreign students had difficulties with fluent conversation at an informal level, informal social interaction, formal subject discussions and seminars in English (Rogers, 1977), remaining linguistically coherent when attempting to answer at length or when joining in discussions (Edwards, 1978). Sharma (1973) reported foreign students' difficulty with giving oral reports and participating in class discussions in English. The problem with accent and general difficulties in understanding the instructor, the native students' near total ellipsis when answering questions and the speed at which they do so were found to be some of the factors which might inhibit foreign students' participation (Edwards,1978).

The foreign students did not know the meaning or appropriate use of many colloquial idioms (Rogers, 1977; Jordan, 1977). The use of slang or allusive language, which excludes the outsider, caused the foreign students to miss a lot of what goes on in the classroom (Edwards, 1978).

The foreign students did not play an active part in discussion, and gave restricted answers to questions (Rogers, 1977).

Foreign students were too formal and polite (Rogers,1977).

Foreign students had difficulty with humor of all kinds (Rogers, 1977).

Foreign students did not understand the various conventions of non-verbal behavior (Rogers, 1977).

In terms of participation in the frequency of turns in self-selections (e.g., paralinguistic cue such as hand-raising, eye contact with teachers, etc.) there were significant differences between the Asian and non-Asian students. Asian students took significantly fewer speaking turns than their non-Asian classmates. In terms of self initiated participation, the Asians spoke less often than the non-Asians. Their participation was largely dependent upon teacher solicitation (Hines and Rutherford, 1981).

The Chinese students did not bid, i.e., did not seek permission verbally or non-verbally to speak nor did they show any non-verbal facial expression or feedback except occasional yawns (van Naerssen, 1984).

7. THE CAUSES OF FOREIGN STUDENTS' ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROBLEMS:

(a) ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROBLEMS DUE TO PREVIOUS EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUNDS:

Foreign students' educational backgrounds caused difficulties in terms of non-participation in group discussion (Edwards, 1978). Overseas students showed excessive deference to teachers, speaking only when spoken to or not answering for fear of losing face (Singh, 1963). Previous training by rote methods were factors influencing students' preference for being told what to do rather than organize their own study (Singh, 1963).

Foreign students heard most spoken English in a passive listening role, i.e., in situations where they were not called upon to respond at all,, e.g., listening to lectures, the radio, and so forth, and, therefore, with no check on comprehension (Jordan, 1977).

Foreign students' cultural attitude toward learning seemed to interfere with their learning in the United

Kingdom; they were more inclined than the home students to accept received ideas without critically examining them.

The primary cause for classroom interaction differences between the United States and the People's Republic of China seemed to lie in differing educational philosophies which define the roles of the teacher and the student (Van Naerssen, 1984).

(b) OTHER CAUSES OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROBLEMS OF FOREIGN STUDENTS:

According to Syananondh (1983), different pronunciation taught in Thailand, inadequate English vocabulary, and lack of training in English conversation were the causes of initial difficulties in English listening comprehension of Thai-speaking foreign students in the U.S.

According to Atari (1983), the strategies of composing in English by Arab students run counter to the native reader's expectations. Thus, the message intended by the writer is not clearly conveyed to the American reader. Arab students use the following strategies of written communication: to include a broad statement in the opening sections of their compositions before the topic sentence is introduced, to elaborate in one topic frame and not the others, and to neglect to connect the constituent topic frames of the compositions.

According to Arani (1985), interference from mother tongue, the complexity of the English language, incomplete knowledge or ignorance of certain structures, interference of conversational English into written English, the transfer of training, lapses of memory, lack of sufficient practice in formal writing, unfamiliarity with the requirements of written English, and pressure of communication were among the major causes of problems in writing of Iranian students.

8. INITIAL ENGLISH LANGUAGE-BASED PROBLEMS OF FOREIGN STUDENTS:

According to Syananondh (1983), initial English language difficulties include difficulty in understanding spoken English in communicative situations in the U.S. Thai-speaking foreign students can understand about half of what is said.

According to Morrison (1974), foreign students' language ability is the crucial factor at the initial stage. Lack of exposure to natural-spoken English accounted for initial difficulty that many foreign students experience on arrival (Morrison, 1974). Vroman, et al. (1971) reported that between one-third and one-half of foreign students lacked sufficient English to begin a full academic program on arrival. According to Straker-Cook (1977) and Jordan (1977), attendance at initial lectures and talks, and participation in seminars and discussion groups placed a heavy demand on oral/aural skills in the earlier stages of their study. Understanding native speakers of English was the first major problem on arrival in Britain; the next major problem was personal fluency and self-expression in English. According to Jordan (1977), the latter would still be a problem after a few months for lack of practice. As they progress through the program, writing skills would eventually become more important and would generally supersede understanding as a cause of major difficulty as written work has to be submitted (Jordan, 1977).

Previous research further indicates that a foreign student's improvement during a one-year training is insignificant. The intensive E.F.L. work is a waste of time (Mason, 1971).

9. STRATEGIES/METHODS OF OVERCOMING THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROBLEMS:

According to Syananondh (1983), watching TV, talking with Americans and listening to lectures were some of the methods of improving English listening comprehension skills.

(b) What Do Previous Research and Related Literature Suggest Are the Unanswered and Key Questions or Important Areas?

This review of previous research and related literature indicates some important areas for further research: (1) Foreign students' studying in the United States and United Kingdom encounter various kinds of problems, e.g., academic (including English language-based problems), personal, social, psychological, financial, etc. It also indicates that the degree of severity of each kind of problems varies not only across individuals but also across nationality groups. (2) Foreign students studying in U.S. universities have serious English language-based problems. Such serious problems exist in the area of English for effective academic uses, e.g., taking lecture notes, participating in class discussions, presenting oral reports, reading efficiently assigned academic texts within a given deadline, writing essays and reports, writing quickly, and so forth.

However, the studies (conducted in the United States) analyzed in this review have treated "the English language-based problems" as only one of the components. Also, in recent years, no extensive study has been done documenting the nature and extent of this aspect of foreign students' problems. Thus, there exists a knowledge gap in this area of research. This knowledge gap indicates the need for a comprehensive study of the English language-based problems of foreign students.

(c) What Specific and Answerable Questions Will This Study Focus upon?

This study will answer the following questions:

1. WHAT ARE SOME OF THE MAJOR ENGLISH LANGUAGE-BASED PROBLEMS OF THE INDONESIAN AND MALAYSIAN STUDENTS STUDYING IN A MAJOR AMERICAN UNIVERSITY?

2. DO THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE-BASED PROBLEMS OF THE INDONESIAN AND MALAYSIAN STUDENTS VARY IN TERMS OF PERSONAL AND ACADEMIC VARIABLES?

3. WHAT ARE THE MAJOR CAUSES OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE-BASED PROBLEMS OF THE INDONESIAN AND MALAYSIAN STUDENTS?

4. WHAT ARE THE MAJOR COPING STRATEGIES FOUND TO BE EFFECTIVE BY THE INDONESIAN AND MALAYSIAN STUDENTS?

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURES

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the methodology and procedures used in the study.

The Population for the Study

This section discusses the rationale for choosing the population for the study.

The participants in this study were the Malaysian and Indonesian graduate and undergraduate students enrolled in degree programs at Indiana University, Bloomington, during the spring semester of 1989-90. They consisted of 47 Indonesian and 92 Malaysian students, two of the largest nationality groups currently attending the university.

It is to be noted that very little research is available to indicate the differences between the Indonesian and Malaysian students in terms of their general English language-based problems while studying in English as a second/foreign language or in a foreign environment. Similarly, there is little research available to indicate the differences between these two nationality groups in terms of the causes of their English language-based problems and their strategies to overcome the English language-based problems and achieve academic success.

However, the literature indicates that many problems of foreign students had their origins in the differences between the educational system of the host country and that of the foreign student's home country (Keats, 1972). On the one hand, the home country may have had a history which facilitated effective transfers, both from it to the host country and from the host country to the home country. For example, the Malaysian and Singaporean educational systems were formally based on English patterns with English medium schools and English examinations. According to Keats, although an increasing number of Malaysian secondary school students used to go through to matriculation level in schools which used Bahasa Malaysia as their medium of instruction, "many vestiges of these English influences still remain in curricula, syllabuses and school organisation." Here, Keats implied that "the historical associations of former colonial (i.e., British) times" facilitated transfer of English language-based learning skills from the home country to the host country. On the other hand, the lack of such "historical associations of former colonial times" involving English language-based learning skills "may inhibit effective transfers." As an example, she mentioned that Indonesian undergraduate students studying in Australia (who had associations with the previous

Dutch colonial educational system in Indonesia where "the use of English was formerly not widespread") had "considerable language problems...." In short, Keats indicated that students from an English-medium educational system are "at an advantage over those from countries in which English is less common" (Keats, 1972).

However, writes Keats, the relationship between ability in English and academic success in Australia was not a simple one to determine. She said, "It probably varies greatly depending on the course taken, and results of research in this field .... have been tenuous and tend to be contradictory." According to Keats, the general situation seemed to be summed up as follows: "whereas good ability in English will contribute to success, lack of it does not necessarily prevent success if appropriate courses are taken."

Based on the evidence from the existing literature about the English language-based differences between the Indonesian and Malaysian students and the researcher's decision to use Indonesian and Malaysian students (from Indiana University, Bloomington) as respondents for this study, the researcher further made the following argument.

Malaysia is a former British colony and still is a member of the British Commonwealth of Nations. Compared to Indonesian students, Malaysian students had had more exposure to the English language in terms of their previous use of English as the medium of instruction, and the earlier age at which they had begun to learn English. Malaysia has an educational system in which English has been very much a part of the instructional and learning systems. On the other hand, Indonesia is a former Dutch colony where English has not been the medium of instruction. As such, Indonesian students had had less exposure to the English language in terms of the following: (1) previous use of English as the medium of instruction, and (2) the age at which they begin to learn English. Research conducted in the United Kingdom indicated that students from the Middle East (non-Commonwealth countries) had had more English language-based academic reading and study skills difficulties than students from the Commonwealth countries (Sen, 1970). In their studies conducted in the United Kingdom, Morrison (1974) and Jordan (1977) pointed out foreign students' different language backgrounds, different abilities in different skill areas, different previous learning experiences, and different learning styles as important factors to be considered in the assessment of overseas students. Also, previous studies of foreign students conducted in the United States (Erickson, 1970; Sharma, 1971; Hill, 1966; Win, 1971; and Lozada, 1970) indicated that there were differences between foreign student groups in terms of their general academic ability, academic adjustment, academic problems in areas requiring English proficiency, understanding lectures and textbooks, presenting oral reports, and overcoming language problems. However, none of these studies sought to determine whether or not differences (in terms of their adjustment problems including language problems) between the nationality groups studied were related to their origins in Commonwealth and non-Commonwealth countries.

(a) Population for the Survey Questionnaire:

As of the spring semester of 1989-1990, there were 47 Indonesian and 92 Malaysian graduate and undergraduate students enrolled at Indiana University, Bloomington. Survey questionnaires were administered to all of them.

(b) Population for Collection of Qualitative Data through Interviews, Classroom Observation, and Examination of Samples of Writing and Lecture Notes:

For qualitative data, six subjects were selected from the two survey questionnaire populations. Since the researcher simply used the qualitative data to validate/elaborate the questionnaire data, and did not attempt to generalize from the sample to the larger group (i.e., the population), the selection of sample from each of the two populations was not proportional. 3 students from the Malaysian group (the total number of Malaysian students being 92) and 3 from the Indonesian group (the total number of Indonesian students being 47) were selected for the purpose of collecting qualitative data. However, the researcher was guided by the following three criteria in selecting the six subjects for the study:

1. The six subjects would represent both nationality groups of foreign students, Malaysian and Indonesian.
2. They were to be students who had already spent time enough to experience English language-based problems but not long enough to have completely overcome these problems yet. In the researcher's view, such students were identified as those who had spent only one academic year or were in their third semester, and had not yet spent two years at a U.S. university. It was assumed that foreign students in this category were still in the process of adjusting to the U.S. educational system, trying to develop effective coping strategies.

This decision of the researcher was based on the rationale that students of this category probably had not yet developed as effective academic coping strategies as those who had attended a U.S. university for two academic years or more.

3. Subjects from each of the two nationality groups must have included both genders (at least one must have been male and one female).

Population for the Pilot Study:

Two subjects representing the two nationality groups, who would not be asked to respond to the final questionnaire, were asked to complete the draft questionnaire approved by the research committee. No particular sampling technique was followed for the pilot study, since the data were not systematically analyzed and reported (Hopkins, 1980).

Obtaining Permission to Use Human Subjects:

The researcher obtained permission from the Indiana University/Bloomington Campus Committee for the Protection of Human Subjects to use human subjects in this study (see Appendix C). He also acknowledged his responsibility as an investigator to secure the informed consent of the subjects (who provided qualitative data) by explaining the procedures of collecting data, and by describing the possible inconvenience as weighed against the potential benefits of the investigation (to the subjects). This was done only when the researcher arrived at a stage where he needed to collect the qualitative data from the 6 subjects. However, no risks to human life were expected to result from participation in the study.

The Setting for the Study

The following criteria were used in choosing the setting for the study:

-- Entry is possible.

-- A rich mix of many of the processes, people, programs, interactions, and/or structures that may be a part of the research questions will be present.

-- The researcher can maintain continuity of his presence for as long as necessary.

-- The research must be site-specific. (Marshall and Rossman, 1989).

Indiana University, Bloomington, was the chosen site for collection of data for the study. The choice was based on the following rationale.

Access to foreign students was possible at Indiana University, Bloomington. When contacted, the presidents of the Indonesian and Malaysian Student Associations assured the researcher that they would be willing to cooperate in the process of the study. This meant they would provide the researcher the names, addresses and telephone numbers of all respondents. This enabled the researcher to directly mail the questionnaires and also select six respondents from the two nationality groups for follow-up interviews, classroom observations, and examination of samples of student essays and lecture notes.

Second, Indiana University, Bloomington, through its International Students' Services Office, International Center, Malaysian Student Cooperative, and many foreign student organizations provides programs, processes, interactions, and structures that were related to the research questions.

Third, it was possible for the researcher to maintain continuity of his presence for as long as necessary. The researcher, as a doctoral student, had been residing on the Indiana University (Bloomington) campus for nearly 5 years and had planned to maintain continuity of his presence here until the research project was completed.

Finally, this study was site-specific. It needed to focus on a U.S. university with a representative population of foreign students with continuous enrollment.

According to Open Doors: Report on International Educational Exchange (1987), Indiana University, Bloomington, ranked 25th in the nation in terms of the number of foreign student enrollment. In 1986-87, out of a total student population of 30,292, Indiana had 1,997 foreign students, constituting 6.6% of the total student population of the university (Open Doors, 1987). According to a handout given to the researcher by the

Dean of the International Students Services Office of Indiana University, Bloomington, there were 1,757 foreign students studying at Indiana during the fall semester of 1988-89. According to the information provided on the telephone by the International Students' Services Office, there were 2,066 foreign students enrolled at Indiana during the spring semester of 1989-990 when data for the study were collected.

However, the total foreign student enrollment figures given above did not include the foreign students under training at the university's Center for English Language Training (CELT). According to the International Student Services Office of the university, since the foreign students under English language training at CELT were not enrolled in any degree programs, they could not be considered a part of the university's total regular (enrolled) foreign student population. These foreign students attended courses only for the purpose of improving their English language-based skills needed to attend degree programs at U.S. universities. The destinations of these students on completion of their training at Indiana University were not yet known. Therefore, these students were excluded from the study.

In short, the flow of foreign students into Indiana University, Bloomington, had been stable and was likely to remain so in the future. Also, "a rich mix of many of the processes, people, programs, interactions and/or structures" (Marshall and Rossman, 1989) that was related to the research questions was present at Indiana University, Bloomington.

Data Collection and Analysis

Different research techniques were employed to collect and analyze data for answering the four research questions of the study. To answer questions 1 and 2, data were collected through both quantitative and qualitative methods. Initial data collected through a survey questionnaire were validated/elaborated by data collected through the three qualitative methods: substantive personal interviews, observation of subjects in their classrooms, and, examination of samples of subjects' essays and lecture notes. To answer questions 3 and 4 of the study, data were collected through one qualitative method only -- substantive personal interviews.

What follows is an overview of the overall process of collecting, validating and expanding data for the study. The overview is presented first in the form of a diagram and then described in prose.

The Process of Collecting, Validating and Expanding Data

Step 1: Identifying and analyzing the current English language-based problems of the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University:

(a) Collecting data through a survey questionnaire sent to the two selected nationality groups of foreign students.
(b) Analyzing data using statistical methods.

Step 2: Collecting data through qualitative methods: substantive personal interviews, classroom observations, and examination of samples of essays and lecture notes applied to 6 study subjects.

-- Analyzing data using qualitative techniques.

(1) Validating/elaborating questionnaire findings on the English language-based problems of foreign students and

2) Identifying and analyzing the causes of these problems and the students' coping strategies.

-- Answering questions 1 and 2 of the study using data derived through all of the above techniques.

-- Answering questions 3 and 4 of the study using data derived through personal interviews only.

-- Writing a narrative case report for each of the 2 case study subjects.

Step 3:

(1) Comparing and contrasting this study's findings with previous research and theory.
(2) Indicating how this study builds on previous research and theory.

Step 4:

(1) Conclusions.
(2) Recommendations.
(3) Suggestions for further study.

To identify and analyze the English language-based problems of Indonesian and Malaysian students, initial data were collected by sending a questionnaire to the selected nationality groups(Malaysian and Indonesian) of foreign students. The questionnaire data were analyzed using descriptive statistical methods.

The questionnaire findings of the English language-based problems of foreign students were validated/elaborated by data from 6 subjects. The qualitative data were collected through the following qualitative techniques: substantive personal interviews, observation of students in their classrooms, and examination of samples of students' essays and lecture notes. The purpose of collecting the qualitative data was to learn more about what had already been found (through the questionnaire) about the English language-based problems of foreign students.

Face-to-face follow-up interviews were held to allow students to reflect further and elaborate on their English language-based problems, speculate on the causes of these problems and describe the coping strategies they found to be effective. The purpose of observation of students in their classrooms and examination of samples of students' essays and lecture notes was to further validate relevant data already obtained through the questionnaire and substantive personal interviews.

Data collection was completed at this stage.

Answers to questions 1 and 2 of the study were based on data derived through the survey questionnaire and then validated through the proposed qualitative case study techniques. Answers to questions 3 and 4 of the study were based on data derived through substantive personal interviews only. In addition, narrative case reports were written on two subjects selected for qualitative study.

The findings from the above two steps were compared/contrasted with previous research and theory. An attempt was made to show how this study builds on previous research and theory.

Conclusions were then drawn from the findings of the study. Recommendations to alleviate the English language-based problems of foreign students were made. In addition, suggestions for further study were made.

The Techniques of Collecting Data

1. Collecting Data through a Survey Questionnaire:

A 34-item questionnaire was administered to collect data on the English language-based problems of the two selected groups of foreign students. The data from the questionnaires were expected to serve two purposes:

(1) To discover and identify some major English language-based problems of the two groups of students.

(2) To determine if there are any significant relationships among the English language-based problems and the personal and academic characteristics of the students.

Securing a Satisfactory Level of Response to the Questionnaire:

A number of steps were taken to maximize the number of questionnaires returned and to check the bias of the non-responding portion of the sample.

One of the most effective methods of ensuring return is to make the respondent aware that he/she has an important contribution to make to a field that will affect him/her personally (Galfo, 1975). Toward this end, respondents were made aware of the benefits of their participation in the study through a cover letter accompanying the questionnaire (see Appendix B). The cover letter was brief but emphasized the following information:

--- the purpose and significance of the study;

--- the importance of the information to be furnished by the respondents;

-- the promise that the respondents would receive a copy of the study's findings, conclusions and recommendations;

--- the fact that responses were anonymous and anonymity would be guaranteed; and

-- a special plea to complete the questionnaire in an honest, sincere and accurate manner and to return it in a timely fashion.

--- a deadline for return of the questionnaire.

A stamped, self-addressed envelope was included.

The process of circulating the questionnaire and receiving responses, and issuing appeals for a greater return was carried on in three cycles (Galfo, 1975). The first consisted of the initial circulation, through the mail. After the first deadline, the second cycle was initiated by circulating a plea for return of the remaining questionnaires. The plea, listing a second deadline, was a letter addressed to each non-respondent. If the level of response to the questionnaire was not yet satisfactory after the revised deadline, a third and final cycle was initiated. This involved an appeal in the form of a personal letter including a second copy of the questionnaire or a telephone call to solicit a response. The request for returns was addressed to all subjects in the sample with the instructions "if you have not returned the questionnaire". A third deadline was set after which time the responses were tabulated.

2. Collecting Data through Qualitative Techniques:

As stated earlier, the survey findings were to be further validated and expanded through data collected from 6 students selected from amongst survey respondents, representing both nationality groups (Sudman and Bradburn, 1984). For collecting qualitative data, the following techniques were used: substantive personal interviews; observation of students in their classrooms; and examination of samples of students' essays and lecture notes.

A brief description of the qualitative techniques follows.

2.1. Substantive Personal Interviews

Using the survey questionnaire as a guide, the researcher asked the selected subjects to elaborate on their perceived English language-based problems. Through the personal interviews, he also probed for the probable causes of foreign students' English language-based problems and the coping strategies used to overcome the problems. Thus, the substantive personal interviews served two purposes:

-- Validating data derived through the survey questionnaire.

-- Collecting data on the causes of students' English language-based problems and students' strategies for overcoming these problems and achieving academic success (to answer questions 3 and 4 of the study).

The researcher held at least three interviews with each of these six students. The amount of time spent on each interview depended on the availability and willingness of the subject. During the interviews, the researcher's questions (to elaborate on the subject's language problems and to probe for his/her coping strategies) were mostly guided by the survey questionnaire. Interviews were tape-recorded and later transcribed to facilitate analysis.

2.2. Observation of Students in Their Classrooms:

Three classroom visits were be made to collect data on each subject's problems in verbal and non-verbal communication in the classroom. The data from observation of students in their classrooms were used to further validate or expand on the relevant data obtained through the questionnaire and personal interviews.

Classroom Observation Procedures:

The CONTINUOUS RECORDING method (Cates, 1985) was used by the researcher to observe the entire class period. The entire classroom activities and interactions were tape-recorded. The tape-recorded activities/interactions were then transcribed. Second, an OBSERVATION SCHEDULE (see Appendix B) designed by the researcher was used to record activities/interactions and the researcher's comments during observation. Finally, the researcher wrote FIELD NOTES in the following way. Once a classroom observation was completed, he left the setting and recorded field notes as soon as possible after observing. He did not talk to anyone about the observation before recording notes. He was concerned more with remembering the substance of an activity/interaction than with producing a "flawless verbatim reproduction..." (Bogdan, 1972).

The actual content of field notes included the following:

-- verbal descriptions of the setting, the people, the activities;

-- direct quotations or at least the substance of what people say;

-- observer's comments which included his feelings, reactions, hunches, initial interpretations, and working hypotheses.

2.3. Examination of Samples of Students's Essays:

Each student was asked to choose two essays that represented his/her problems in academic writing in English. These essays were then examined to further validate or expand on the relevant data obtained through the questionnaire and personal interviews.

2.4. Examination of Samples of Students' Lecture Notes:

Three samples of lecture notes on each subject were examined to validate or expand on the relevant data obtained through survey questionnaire and personal interviews.

Securing a Satisfactory Level of Participation in the Collection of Qualitative Data:

An effort was made to ensure respondents' participation in a timely fashion and accurate manner. Such an effort was especially necessary to collect interview data.

For participation in the interviews, respondents were telephoned or visited to encourage participation. This was possible because both the researcher and most of the respondents lived on the same campus and, in some cases, in the same neighborhood. Also, the researcher explained to the prospective subjects that their participation in the case study methods would help them in more accurately measuring their own language-based problems and in knowing what systematic coping strategies could be used to overcome such problems.

The Techniques of Analyzing Data

Analyzing the Questionnaire Data:

The Personal and Academic Characteristics of the Indonesian and Malaysian Students:

Initial results of questionnaire data described, in a table, each independent variable and the percentages of students from the groups comprising each independent variable.

Frequencies and Percentages of Students within Each Nationality Group:

In order to indicate the severity of the problems of students within each nationality group, frequencies and percentages were computed and presented in tables. The table then was described in prose.

Assumption: A significant percentage of the Indonesian and Malaysian students have English language-based problems on each of the 31 items of the questionnaire.

The data from the table of frequency and percentage of the Indonesian and Malaysian students' responses to each of the 31 items of the questionnaire were used to answer this assumption.

Statistical Tests:

The following statistical tests were used so that the researcher could use the test results in interpreting the findings and making generalizations. The results of the statistical tests also facilitated answers to questions 1 and 2 of the study. The rationale for using an individual test is provided in the discussion of the test.

Testing Hypothesis 1:

There are significant relationships/associations between students' personal and academic characteristics and specific as well as overall language problems.

The Chi-square Test of Association was used to determine if the percentage of one group of students who indicated having English language-based problems differed significantly from the percentage of another group of students reporting such problems. The difference between the percentages of any two groups of students having English language-based problems was considered significant at the ($p < 0.05$) alpha level.

The Chi-square Test of Association was used to determine the relationship (Hopkins, Glass and Hopkins, 1987) between students' individual English language-based problems and each of the following independent variables:

country of origin; age; field of study; gender; marital status; academic level; previous use of English as a medium of instruction in the home country; previous use of textbooks in English; speaking English at home; residence in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S.; length of training in the English language; and length of stay in the U.S. The relationship between students' English language-based problems and the above-mentioned independent variables was considered significant at the (P 0.05) alpha level.

The Chi-square Test of Association was considered appropriate. It is essentially a test of differences. It tests for the difference between the observed proportion and the expected proportion of each cell of a two-way contingency table (When the expected proportions are estimated from the data in the sample, the chi-square test of association is used). An overall significant difference (i.e., a significant chi-square) indicates that the two variables (row variable and column variable) forming the two-way contingency table are significantly related to one another in some way (Glass and Hopkins, 1984). It answers the question, "Is the row variable related in some way to the column variable --, i.e., is there some degree of association between the two variables?" (Hopkins, Glass and Hopkins, 1987).

The chi-square test is commonly used to test differences in proportions of two or more groups (Glass and Hopkins, 1984). However, this test does not enable one to control the probability of a Type II error. But, in fact, the adoption of an alpha level (i.e., P 0.05) instead of a lower level, for example, P 0.01, is to increase the power of the test. Another means of increasing the power of the statistical test is to increase the number of students in both nationality groups (of foreign students) within practical limits.

Testing hypotheses 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, and 13:

Hypothesis # 2: There is a significant difference between the means of the two nationality groups on the overall English language-based problems.

Hypothesis # 3: There is a significant difference between the means of the two age groups.

Hypothesis # 4: There is a significant difference among the overall mean scores of the four student groups based on academic disciplines.

Hypothesis # 5: There is a significant difference between the mean scores of the male and female student groups.

Hypothesis # 6: There is a significant difference between the mean scores of married and single students.

Hypothesis # 7: There is a significant difference between the mean scores of graduate and undergraduate students.

Hypothesis # 8: There is a significant difference between the mean scores of students who had not used English as the medium of instruction in the home country and of those who had.

Hypothesis # 9: There is a significant difference between the mean scores of students who had not previously used textbooks in English in the present field and of those who had.

Hypothesis # 10: There is a significant difference between the mean scores of students who do not speak English at home and of those who do.

Hypothesis # 11: There is a significant difference between the mean scores of students who had not resided in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S. and of those who had.

Hypothesis # 12: There is a significant difference between the mean scores of students who had learned English for a period of time at or below the national average and of those who had learned English for a period of time above the national average.

Hypothesis # 13: There is a significant difference between the mean scores of students who had been in the U.S. for a period of time below the overall average and of those who had been in the U.S. for a period of time at or above the overall average.

To test hypotheses 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, and 13, t-tests were used. The difference between the means of the two groups on the overall English language-based problems was considered significant at the ($P < 0.05$) alpha level.

The adoption of the alpha level ($P < .05$) instead of a lower level, for example, $p < .01$, was to increase the power of the test. Another consideration in increasing the power of the statistical test was to increase the number of students in both groups (of students) within practical limits.

The t-test was chosen because violation of the normality and of the homogeneity-of-variance assumptions would not affect the power of the test.

To test hypothesis # 4 (for independent variable 3 = field of study), one-way ANOVA was used instead of a t-test. One-way ANOVA is the analysis of variance where the groups are defined on only one independent variable. (Howell, 1985). The independent variable for which the hypothesis was tested in this study was field of study or academic discipline.

ANOVA is a method of statistical inference that evaluates whether there is any systematic (i.e., nonrandom) difference among the set of J means. Thus, it has three definite advantages over separate t-tests when $J > 2$: (1) It yields an accurate and known type-I error probability, whereas the actual α for the set of several separate t-tests is high yet undetermined; (2) It is more powerful (when α is held constant) -- that is, if the null hypothesis is false, it is more likely to be rejected; (3) It can assess the effects of two or more independent variables simultaneously. (Glass and Hopkins, 1984).

Reliability of the Results from the Survey Questionnaire:

The test/re-test procedure was employed to determine the reliability of the results from the survey questionnaire. The same questionnaire was re-administered to randomly selected subgroups of the main population. That is, an individual who has already answered the questionnaire was asked to take it again, and his/her answers were compared for consistency (Mouly, 1970).
The time gap between the first and second administrations of the test was approximately two weeks. The more agreement between the two sets of scores, the higher the reliability. Agreement was measured by computing a correlation coefficient, which served as the reliability

coefficient (Johnson, 1977). A high reliability coefficient ((r = .7894, (p < .000)) was found.

Test-retest Reliability

Subject #:	Test 1 Total Score	Test 2 Total Score
1	41	36
2	56	59
3	69	59
4	48	64
5	63	69
6	74	68
7	48	65
8	73	71
9	63	71
10	73	82
11	78	76
12	62	46
13	75	70
14	89	82
15	70	69
16	86	82
17	73	56
18	38	33
19	75	93
20	62	53
	Mean Score = 65.80	Mean Score = 65.2

r = .7894 (p < .000), number of subjects = 20

Reducing Practice Effect: A problem in measuring reliability by administering the same test to students on two occasions is known as the "practice effect" (Johnson, 1977). If time gap between the two test administrations is too short (e.g., less than two weeks), students may recall the answers when the test is repeated. To reduce the practice effect, the time between the two test administrations was limited to two weeks.

In the cover letter accompanying the questionnaire (for the test/re-test procedure), the subjects were told that it was necessary for the researcher to establish the reliability of the results from the first questionnaire by having them respond to the same questionnaire for a second time. They were urged to respond to the second questionnaire as honestly, completely and accurately as possible. In the cover letter, the researcher assured subjects that it was not necessary for them to remember their responses to the first questionnaire so that they did not feel uptight about trying to remember their first responses.

Analyzing the Qualitative (Case Study) Data:

The following four steps were followed in the analysis of the data to validate the questionnaire findings as well as to write case reports:

-- analysis during data collection;

-- intensive analysis of data;

-- developing categories; and

-- building a theory (Merriam, 1988).

1. Analysis during Data Collection:

1.1: Using Previous Findings as Leads:

The study's initial findings, derived from the survey questionnaire, on the English language-based problems of foreign students were used as leads for substantive personal interviews, observation of students in their classrooms, and examination of samples of students' essays and lecture notes.

1.2: The Researcher Writing Memos to Himself:

The researcher wrote memos to himself about what he was learning. "The memos can provide a time to reflect on issues raised in the setting and how they relate to larger theoretical, methodological, and substantive issues" (Bogdan and Biklen, 1982, p 149).

1.3: Being Guided by a Question:

While conducting personal interviews, observing students in their classrooms and examining samples of essays and lecture notes, the researcher was guided by the following question, "What does this remind me of?" He looked for metaphors, analogies and concepts (some of which he might have had already identified through the literature review and previously collected data) in the data unfolding to him. His purpose will be to try, according to Bogdan and Biklen (1982: p. 154), "... to raise concrete relations and happenings observed in a particular setting to a higher level of abstraction."

1.4: All Information about Each Subject Should be Brought Together:

First, interview data on each individual subject were organized by categories/themes. Then, data from transcripts of interview(s) and all other observations about the subject were brought together and organized under the subject's name (including the date of interviewing).

1.5: Editing the Information:

The information was edited, redundancies were sorted out, and parts were fitted together.

2. Intensive Analysis of Data:

2.1: Writing Margin Notes While Scanning through Data:

The data were then be scanned several times from beginning to end. While reading, the researcher jotted down notes, comments, observations, and queries in the margins. The notes served "to isolate the initially most striking... aspects of the data" (Goetz and LeCompte, 1984, p. 191).

2.2: Unitizing the Data:

At this stage of analysis, the researcher identified "... units of information that will, sooner or later, serve as the basis for defining categories" (Lincoln and Guba, 1985: 344).

2.3: Using Index Cards:

Each unit of information was put on a separate 3 X 5 index card which was coded according to an aspect of a specific problem. For example, "Failure to write down the major points of a lecture in English" was an aspect of the problem -- "Taking Lecture Notes in English."

3. Developing Categories/Themes:

The researcher determined which index cards were to go with each other, following the "look-alike" or "feel-alike" criteria of Lincoln and Guba (1985). Since he had already established, through an analysis of the questionnaire data, the categories/themes of the English language-based problems of foreign students, his purpose, at this stage, was to put together the index cards that fell in each of these categories/themes.

The researcher made sure that the categories were not only internally homogeneous (i.e., all items in a single category ought to be similar) but also heterogeneous ((i.e., differences among categories ought to be "bold and clear" (Lincoln and Guba, 1985: p. 93)).

4. Developing Theory:

Here, the researcher established a smaller set of higher level concepts and the analysis moved toward the development of a theory on the English language-based problems of the Indonesian and Malaysian students. The purpose of this emergent theory was to explain a large number of phenomena and tell how they are related (Merriam, 1988).

Thus, the emergent theory in this study was used to determine how well the existing categories/themes (derived from the questionnaire data) were supported by the qualitative data and how well integrated the properties of a category were.

More specifically, in order to facilitate the development of a theory, the researcher not only sought to establish a smaller set of higher level concepts about the English language-based problems but also to explain how the causes of the English language-based problems and the coping strategies of the students, in terms of these problems, were related to their present English language-based problems.

Finally, the researcher attempted to compare/contrast the findings of this study with previous research and theory. He indicated the outgrowth of previous research and theory and, thereby, demonstrated the contribution this study made to an increased knowledge-base.

Writing Two Narrative Case Reports:

The questionnaire data as well as the qualitative data were used to write narrative case reports of two students.

Establishing the Validity of the Analysis of Qualitative Data:

A. Internal Validity: The following measures were taken to ensure the internal validity of the data:

1. The multiple methods design:

   The multiple methods design adopted for the study cross-validated findings.

2. Member Check:

   Data and their interpretations were taken back to the people from whom they were derived and subjects were asked if the results were plausible (Merriam, 1988).

3. Peer Examination:

   Colleagues were asked to comment on the findings as they emerged.

B. External Validity: The following measures were taken to ensure the external validity of the data:

1. Establishing the typicality of the case: describing how typical the individual was compared with others in the same situation so that users of this study could make comparisons with their own situations (Goetz and LeCompte, 1984, cited in Merriam, 1988:

177).

2. Conducting a cross-case analysis -- Findings were presented first as individual case studies. Then, a cross-case analysis leading to generalizations about what constitutes the English language-based problems of the students concerned was conducted. An interpretation based on evidence from several cases can be more compelling to a reader than results based on a single case (Merriam, 1988). According to Miles and Huberman (1984, cited in Merriam, 1988: 154), "By comparing sites or cases, one can establish the range of generality of a finding or explanation, and at the same time, pin down the conditions under which that finding will occur."

Establishing the Reliability of the Results Obtained from the Qualitative Data:

The following techniques were used to ensure the consistency and dependability of the results obtained from the qualitative data:

1. The Investigator's Position (Goetz and LeCompte, 1984): The investigator has studied English as a second language and literature as his major fields and obtained two master's degrees in these areas (from Bangladeshi and Canadian universities). He has taught English as a Second/Foreign Language and Literature at the university level in Bangladesh, Algeria and Canada for a total of 8

years. As an Associate Instructor, he has taught the course "X151: Practical Application of Learning Skills" at Indiana University's Learning Skills Center for the 1986-87 academic year. The course was attended by not only some American freshmen but also a few upper level undergraduate students including foreign students. His experience also includes tutoring foreign students from Malaysia, Indonesia and Hungary.

Some of the questionnaire items for this study have emerged from the investigator's own insights gained from his active involvement in the teaching and evaluation of users of ESL/EFL as well as from his personal experience using English as a second language in U.S. and Canadian universities.

Like many of the subjects in this study, the investigator himself entered the U.S. as an international student at Indiana University, Bloomington, in January, 1985. As a doctoral student in Indiana university's Department of Language Education, he became interested in the English language-based problems foreign students encounter in studying content-area subjects in the U.S.

This study is an attempt to develop for the researcher a broader understanding of the problems the Indonesian and Malaysian students had in using English to study content-area subjects at a U.S. university. In the review of research and theory, the investigator has discussed at length the communicative competence theory of language teaching and what constitutes foreign students' communicative competence in English.

2. Triangulation (Merriam, 1988):

The between-methods triangulation design of the study strengthens the reliability of the results of the study.

3. Audit Trail :

The investigator has described in detail how data were collected, how categories were derived, and how decisions were made throughout the inquiry so "that other researchers can use the original report as an operating manual by which to replicate the study" (Goetz and LeCompte, 1984).

INSTRUMENTS AND MATERIALS

1. The Survey Questionnaire:

An inventory of English language-based problems of foreign students prepared by the researcher was used in this study (see Appendix A). It includes two sections.

Section 1 of the Survey Questionnaire: the 12 Personal and Academic Characteristics of the Respondents:

This section includes items designed to collect data on the following personal and academic characteristics of foreign students: (1) country of origin; (2) age; (3) field of study; (4) gender; (5) marital status; (6) academic level (i.e., graduate and undergraduate); (7) previous use of English as the medium of instruction/learning in the home country; (8) previous use of textbooks in English; (9) speaking English at home either as a first or second language; (10) residence in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S.; (11) length of training in the English language; and (12) length of stay in the United States.

Most of the above-mentioned variables are recognized as independent variables in the tradition of research on foreign students' adjustment problems including English language-based problems. Variables 1, 3, 4, 5, and 6 are recognized in Open Doors: Report on International Educational Exchange (1987), an authoritative source of data on foreign students in the U.S., as some of the personal and academic characteristics of foreign students. Previous research (Sen, 1970; Singh, 1963; Rogers, 1977; Edwards, 1978) considers variables 7 and 11 as important independent variables in determining foreign students' English language-based problems. Similarly, previous research (Davies, 1965; Morrison, 1974) also considers variable 12 an important characteristic of foreign students. Payind's doctoral dissertation, Academic, Personal and Social Problems of Afghan and Iranian Students in the United States (1977), a leading and relatively recent study on foreign students' adjustment problems (including study skills and English language problems) conducted at Indiana University, Bloomington, used variables 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 and 12 in order to determine their association with the severity of foreign students' adjustment problems in the U.S. In addition, Hill's doctoral dissertation, An Analysis of a Group of Indonesian, Thai, Pakistani, and Indian Student Perceptions of Their Problems While Enrolled at Indiana University (1966), used, among others, variables 1, 5 and 12 as important personal and academic characteristics of foreign students. He argued that a knowledge of the respondents' "personal and background" characteristics would contribute to a better understanding of their problems (including English language-based problems) as foreign students in the U.S.

Based on pre-pilot and pilot testing of the questionnaire, the present researcher has added variable 8. Also, variables 9 and 10 were included based on recommendation by the content expert reviewers of the questionnaire.

Section 2 of the Survey Questionnaire: the multiple-choice Checklist:

This section contains a multiple-choice checklist of 34 areas covering Indonesian and Malaysian students' current English language-based problems. It sought to discover and identify the degree of severity of the problems as perceived by the respondents who indicated the degree of severity of the problems on a 4-point scale as described below.

The research literature indicates that most of the problems listed in the questionnaire were important English language-based problems of foreign students in the U.S. and U.K.. Therefore, these items are grounded in the research and theory which have been reviewed in this study.

However, based on his own insights and experience of working with foreign students in various learning-related situations and pre-pilot and pilot interviews with some individuals from the target population, the researcher has introduced additional items. For example, the item-- "Taking lecture notes in English" -- has been added to the questionnaire. Pre-pilot and pilot interviews have indicated that "Taking lecture notes in English" appears to be one of the important problems foreign students encounter.

For section 2, respondents will indicate their degree of severity of a problem on a 4-point scale:

1 = I have no problem.

2 = I have a very minor problem.

3 = I have a somewhat serious problem.

4 = I have a very serious problem.

Payind (1977) sought to discover and identify foreign students' perceptions of the degree of severity of their academic, personal and social problems including English language-based problems using the following 4-point scale: great difficulty, difficulty, little difficulty, and no difficulty. At the end of each item, a space was provided for "no opinion" or "not applicable." Hill (1966) who conducted a study of foreign students' perceptions of the degree of severity of their academic, financial, social, religious and health problems including English language-based problems, used the following 4-point scale: very great trouble, trouble, little trouble, and no trouble.

Establishing the Content Validity of the Survey Questionnaire:

The literature review that identified most of the questionnaire items provided evidence of content validity of the questionnaire. Also, the researcher had the content validity of the questionnaire reviewed by three experts considered qualified to provide content review of the questionnaire. One of them had the experience of teaching Intensive English to foreign students at Indiana University. The other two content experts held top-level administrative positions in the Indiana University's Office of International Students' Services and knew about the problems, particularly the language and cultural problems, faced by foreign students in general and the Indonesian and Malaysian students in particular. Finally, the content validity of the questionnaire was also reviewed by the researcher's research committee.

2. A Guide for Collecting the Qualitative Data:

The survey questionnaire was used as a guide for collecting data through in-person interviews, classroom observation, and examination of samples of students' essays and lecture notes.

To conduct interviews, the following procedure was used: during face-to-face interviews, the researcher went, one by one, through the questionnaire items and asked students to elaborate on the individual English language-based problems, to explain the perceived causes of the problems and the coping strategies employed. Also, the relevant questionnaire items were used as leads to obtain data from observation of students in the classrooms and samples of essays and lecture notes.

3. The Classroom Observation Schedule:

An observation schedule/sheet (see Appendix B) comprising 5 elements was used for recording researcher comments during observation. The five elements of the observation sheet are as follows (Merriam, 1989):

The Setting:

The researcher described the time, the physical environment of an activity/interaction and the kind of behavior the setting was expected to encourage, permit, discourage, or prevent. The attributes of the setting (i.e., the classroom) were described.

The Participants:

The researcher described who were in the scene, how many people, and their roles and objective.

Activities and Interactions:

The researcher described the nature of an activity or interaction, sequence of activities/interactions, how participants interacted with the activity and with one another, and how participants and activities were connected or interrelated -- either from the participants' point of view or from the researcher's perspective.

Frequency and Duration of an Activity/Interaction:

The researcher described when an activity/interaction began and when it ended, whether or not it was a recurring type of situation, if so, how often, the occasions that gave rise to it, and how typical of such situations was the one being observed.

Subtle Factors:

Non-verbal communication skills, e.g., hand-raising, eye-contact, nodding, and smiling of a foreign student to convey a message were noted on the observation sheet.

In addition, a tape-recorder was used to tape-record oral communication in the classroom being observed.

4. Samples of Essays:

Samples were collected from the 6 subjects. The relevant portion of the survey questionnaire was used as a guide to identify problems in the samples of written work.

5. Samples of Lecture Notes:

Sample notes were collected from the 6 subjects. The relevant survey questionnaire items were used as a guide to identify problems in the samples of lecture notes.

Pilot Test

Based on the review of related research literature and the researcher's experience of foreign students' English language-based problems in Canada and the U.S., the researcher designed a 34-item questionnaire. He first had the questionnaire approved by the research committee and then pilot tested it.

A pilot test of the questionnaire was conducted in order to determine if the items were clear and easy to understand and respond to. The precise objectives of the pilot study were:

(1) To determine if the potential respondents had any difficulties with the wording of any items on the questionnaire.

(2) To solicit and gather, from the pilot test population, formative evaluation of the items and of the length of the questionnaire, the test format for the multiple choice items (whether or not they understood the various degrees of severity indicated by the 4-point scale), the number and appropriateness of the questionnaire items, and how much time it would take them to complete the questionnaire.

Two subjects representing the Indonesian and Malaysian student groups selected for the study were asked to complete the pilot questionnaire. They were also interviewed and their responses were tape-recorded. No particular sampling technique was followed for the pilot study, since the data were not (systematically analyzed and) reported (Hopkins, 1980).

The two subjects' tape-recorded responses to the questionnaire items were analyzed. Once the pilot interviews were analyzed, the researcher revised the draft questionnaire and the proposed procedures for collecting and analyzing data for the main study.

Finally, the revised procedures for collecting and analyzing data were employed to collect data for the main study.

As noted earlier, the pilot population was not included in the population for the main study. It can be argued that this non-inclusion of the pilot population could have reduced the number of respondents for the main study, and, as a result, the generalizability of each finding might have been questionable. However, the non-inclusion of the pilot population in the main study was not expected to have any significant effect on the findings of the study, since the number of subjects for the pilot was small (only two subjects).

Limitations of the Methodology and Procedures

Limitations of the Methodology:

The research strategy chosen for this study is variously known in literature as convergent methodology, multimethod research design, convergent validation (Jick, 1979) or between-method triangulation (Denzin, 1978, cited in Zerbinos, 1985: 10). This research strategy seeks triangulation of conclusions across different methods (quantitative and qualitative) in order to enhance the validity of research conclusions (Denzin, 1978, cited in Zerbinos, 1985: 10). The approach is not, however, without some shortcomings.

First, replication which is usually considered to be a necessary step in scientific progress is exceedingly difficult. Replicating a mixed-methods study, including idiosyncratic techniques, is a nearly impossible task and not likely to become a popular exercise (Jick, 1979). Qualitative methods, in particular, are problematic to replicate.

Secondly, there are risks in conducting research by mixing quantitative and qualitative methodologies (Kidder and Fine, 1987). Triangulation of conclusions across different methods (quantitative and qualitative) employed within a single study may take a different form. This means that the conclusions arrived at through the quantitative and qualitative methods may not only be contradictory but also divergent. For instance, in research on expatriates in India, Kidder (1977, cited in Kidder and Fine, 1987: 64) was both a participant observer and a survey researcher. She wrote field notes of her own and other sojourners' experiences and also asked a sample of over one hundred to respond to a questionnaire. Kidder and Fine (1987) note: "The risks in conducting research with such mixed methods are not so much that the methods will produce contradictory conclusions as that they will simply diverge -- leading to noncomparable rather than incompatible ends."

Thirdly, while it may be rather obvious, multi-methods are of no use with the "wrong" question. If the research is not clearly focused theoretically or conceptually, no combination of methods will produce a satisfactory outcome. Similarly, between-method triangulation should not be used to legitimate a dominant, personally preferred method. That is, if either quantitative or qualitative methods become mere window dressing for the other, then the design is inadequate or biased (Jick, 1979). Each method should be represented in a significant way. However, this does raise the question as to whether the various instruments may be viewed as equally sensitive to the phenomenon being investigated. In fact, one method may be stronger or more appropriate but this needs to be carefully justified and made explicit.

Finally, the convergent methodology or between-method triangulation is a research strategy that may not be suitable for all purposes. Various constraints (e.g., time, costs, etc.) may prevent its effective use.

Limitations of the Procedures:

One major limitation has to do with the sample population. First, the sample for the study has been drawn from only those Indonesian and Malaysian students who were studying at Indiana University, Bloomington. The findings of this study cannot necessarily be generalized to the Indonesian and Malaysian students at other universities in the U.S. Secondly, although the researcher was interested in finding differences between two nationality groups, the two nationality groups of foreign students for this study were, in some ways, homogeneous -- both had similar linguistic and cultural origins. (However, an important difference between the two groups was that they had different colonial educational backgrounds. Malaysia is a former British colony, and therefore, has experienced the use of English as a medium of learning. On the other hand, Indonesia is a former Dutch colony, and has not experienced the use of English as a medium of learning.) It is possible that because of this reason the researcher did not find any significant differences between the mean scores of the two nationality groups in terms of their overall English language-based problems.

Secondly, some major studies on the topic have selected, as their samples, several groups of foreign students each of whom represented a major geographic region of the world, such as South Asia, Latin America, Middle East or South-East Asia. Since this study included subjects who represented only one small geographic region, i.e., a part of Southeast Asia, its findings cannot be necessarily generalized to foreign students from other geographic regions of the world.

Thirdly, one of the expected limitations of this study was that the subjects chosen might have been unwilling to respond to the series of instruments to which they were subjected. Since participation in a study that proposed to use 4 instruments (1. survey questionnaire; 2. in-person interviews; 3. classroom observation; and 4. examination of student essays and lecture notes) was time-consuming, some of the target subjects could have refused to participate. This could have been especially true of the survey questionnaires. Some students might have been reluctant to supply information, or they might have been disinterested. Small participation could have seriously damaged the study by biasing the results (Johnson, 1977). Perhaps the non-respondents included more foreign students who had severe difficulties in communication in the relevant learning situations.

Subjects' responses to the questionnaire and participation (especially, in the interviews) in a timely fashion and accurate manner could not have been guaranteed. Finally, some foreign students could have refused to let the researcher examine their scholastic records (in the event it became necessary for him to do so). Since these could not be controlled by the researcher, they were likely to have important effects on the outcomes of the study.

CHAPTER 4

FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES OF RESPONSES TO THE QUESTIONNAIRE

This chapter describes the frequencies and percentages of responses to each questionnaire item. Frequencies and percentages of responses are computed and presented in a table. The tables are also described in prose.

THE FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES OF RESPONSES TO SECTION I OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE: THE PERSONAL AND ACADEMIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE INDONESIAN AND MALAYSIAN STUDENTS AT INDIANA UNIVERSITY

The frequencies and percentages of responses are computed and presented in tables for the 12 selected personal and academic characteristics. The tables are also described in prose.

Item # 1: Distribution of Respondents according to Nationality

Of the total respondents, 57 or 56.4% were Malaysian and 44 or 43.6% were Indonesian students.

Table 1: Distribution of Respondents According to Nationality

Nationality	Number	Percent
Malaysian	57	56.4
Indonesian	44	43.6
Total	101	100.0

Item # 2: Distribution of Respondents According to Age

Of the total respondents, 69 or 68.3% were 25 years old or younger and 28 or 27.7% were 26 years old or older.

Table 2a: Distribution of Respondents according to Age:

Age group	Number	Percent
25 years old or younger	69	68.3
26 years old or older	28	27.7
Missing Cases	4	4.0
Total	101	100.0

The average Indonesian respondents were 27.80 years old and the average Malaysian respondents were 23.02 years old.

Table 2b: National average of Age (in Years)

Nationality	Average Age
Indonesian	27.80
Malaysian	23.02

Item # 3: Distribution of Respondents According to Field of Study

Of the total respondents, 7 or 6.9% were in the humanities, 23 or 22.8% were in the sciences, 55 or 54.5% were in the professional disciplines, and 16 or 15.8% were in the social sciences.

Table 3: Distribution of Respondents according to Field of Study

Field of study	Number	Percent
Humanities	7	6.9
Sciences	23	22.8
Professional Disciplines	55	54.5
Social Sciences	16	15.8
Total	101	100.0

4. Distribution of Respondents According to Gender

Of the total respondents, 53 or 52.5% were male and 48 or 47.5% were female.

Table 4: Distribution of Respondents according to Gender

Gender	Number	Percent
Male	53	52.5
Female	48	47.5
Total	101	100.0

5. Distribution of Respondents according to Marital Status

Of the total respondents, 23 or 22.8% were married and 78 or 77.2% were single.

Table 5: Distribution of Respondents according to Marital Status

Marital Status	Number	Percent
Married	23	22.8
Single	78	77.2
Total	101	100.0

6. Distribution of Respondents according to Academic Level

Of the total respondents 34 or 33.7% were graduate and 67 or 66.3% were undergraduate students.

Table 6: Distribution of Respondents according to Academic Level

Academic Level	Number	Percent
Graduate	34	33.7
Undergraduate	67	66.3
Total	101	100.0

7. Distribution of Respondents according to Use of English as the Medium of Instruction in the Home Country

Of the total respondents, 34 or 33.7% used English as the medium of instruction in the home country and 67 or 66.3% did not use English as the medium of instruction in the home country.

Table 7: Distribution of Respondents according to Use of English as the Medium of Instruction in the Home Country

Response Category	Number	Percent
Yes	34	33.7
No	67	66.3
Total	101	100.0

8. Distribution of Respondents according to Use of Textbooks in English for Previous Studies in the Present Field

Of the total respondents, 82 or 81.2% used textbooks in English for previous studies in the present field and 18 or 17.8% did not use textbooks in English for previous studies in the present field.

Table 8: Distribution of Respondents according to Use of Textbooks in English for Previous Studies in the Present Field

Response Category	Number	Percent
Yes	82	81.2
No	18	17.8
Missing Cases	1	1.0
Total	101	100.0

9. Distribution of Respondents according to Speaking of English at Home

Of the total respondents, 52 or 51.5% spoke English at home and 49 or 48.5% did not speak English at home.

Table 9: Distribution of Respondents according to Speaking of English at Home

Response Category	Number	Percent
Yes	52	51.5
No	49	48.5
Total	101	100.0

10. Distribution of Respondents according to Residence in an English-speaking Country before Beginning Studies in the U.S.

Of the total respondents, 24 or 23.8% had resided in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S. and 77 or 76.2% had not resided in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S.

Table 10: Distribution of Respondents according to Residence in an English-speaking Country before Beginning Studies in the U.S.

Response Category	Number	Percent
Yes	24	23.8
No	77	76.2
Total	101	100.0

11. Distribution of Respondents according to Length of Learning English

Of the total respondents, 42 or 41.6% learned English for a period of time which was below the national average length and 57 or 56.4% learned English for a period of time which was at or above the national average length.

Table 11a: Distribution of Respondents according to Length of Learning English

Length of Learning English	Number	Percent
Below National Average	42	41.6
At or Above National Average	57	56.4
Missing Cases	2	2.0
Total	101	100.0

The Indonesian respondents learned English for an average of 6.95 years and the Malaysian respondents learned English for an average of 11.93 years.

Table 11b: National Average of Length of Learning English (in Years)

Nationality	Average Length of Learning English
Indonesian	6.95
Malaysian	11.93

12. Distribution of Respondents according to Length of Stay in the U.S.

Of the total respondents, 38 or 37.6% had been in the U.S. for a period of time which was below the overall average length of stay and 63 or 62.4% had been in the U.S. for a period of time which was at or above the overall average length of stay.

Table 12a: Distribution of Respondents according to Length of Stay in the U.S.

Length of Stay	Number	Percent
Below Overall Average	38	37.6
At or Above Overall Average	63	62.4
Total	101	100.0

The Indonesian respondents had been in the U.S. for an average of 2.97 years and the Malaysian respondents had been in the U.S. for an average of 1.18 years.

Table 12b: National Average of Length of Stay in the U.S. (in years)

Nationality	Average years
Indonesian	2.97
Malaysian	1.18

THE FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES OF RESPONSES TO SECTION II OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE: THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE-BASED PROBLEMS OF THE INDONESIAN AND MALAYSIAN STUDENTS AT INDIANA UNIVERSITY

In order to indicate the level of severity (i.e., problem or serious problem) of the problems, frequencies and percentages are computed and presented in tables for both nationality groups together as well as for each nationality group separately. The tables are also described in prose.

The frequencies and percentages have been computed at the following three levels:

1. NO PROBLEM;
2. VERY MINOR PROBLEM;
3. SERIOUS PROBLEM (Problems ranging from somewhat serious to very serious).

Item # 1: Having a Smooth Informal Conversation in English:

Table 1a below indicates, of both the Malaysian and Indonesian respondents, 38 (37.6%) had no problem, 45 (44.6%) had very minor problems and 18 (17.8%) had serious problems having a smooth informal conversation in English.

Table 1a: Having a smooth informal conversation in English

Problem Level	Frequency	Percentage
No problem	38	37.6
Very Minor Problem	45	44.6
Serious Problem	18	17.8
Total	101	100.0

Table 1b below indicates, of the Malaysian respondents, 16 (28.1%) had no problem, 29 (50.9%) had very minor problems and 12 (21.1%) had serious problems having a smooth informal conversation in English. Of the Indonesian respondents, 22 (50.0%) had no problem, 16 (36.4%) had very minor problems and 6 (13.6%) had serious problems having a smooth informal conversation in English.

Table 1b: Having a smooth informal conversation in English

	Malaysian		Indonesian	
Problem Level	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
No Problem	16	28.1	22	50.0
Very Minor Problem	29	50.9	16	36.4
Serious Problem	12	21.1	6	13.6
Total	57	100.0	44	100.0

Item # 2: Speaking Fluently in English:

Table 2a below indicates, of both the Malaysian and Indonesian respondents, 23 (22.8%) had no problem, 57 (56.4%) had very minor problems and 21 (20.8%) had serious problems speaking fluently in English.

Table 2a: Speaking fluently in English

Problem Level	Frequency	Percentage
No Problem	23	22.8
Very Minor Problem	57	56.4
Serious Problem	21	20.8
Total	101	100.0

Table 2b below indicates, of the Malaysian respondents, 11 (19.3%) had no problem, 30 (52.6%) had very minor problems and 16 (28.1%) had serious problems speaking fluently in English. Of the Indonesian respondents, 12 (27.3%) had no problem, 27 (61.3%) had very minor problems and 5 (11.4%) had serious problems speaking fluently in English.

Table 2b: Speaking fluently in English

	Malaysian		Indonesian	
Problem Level	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
No Problem	11	19.3	12	27.3
Very Minor Problem	30	52.6	27	61.3
Serious Problem	16	28.1	5	11.4
Total	57	100.0	44	100.0

Item # 3: Vocabulary for Effective Verbal Communication in English:

Table 3a below indicates, of both the Malaysian and Indonesian respondents, 24 (23.8%) had no problem, 54 (53.5%) had very minor problems and 23 (22.8%) had serious problems of vocabulary for effective verbal communication in English.

Table 3a: Problem of vocabulary for effective verbal communication in English

Problem Levels	Frequency	Percentage
No Problem	24	23.8
Very Minor Problem	54	53.5
Serious Problem	23	22.8
Total	101	100.0

Table 3b below indicates, of the Malaysian respondents, 14 (24.6%) had no problem, 28 (49.1%) had very minor problems and 15 (26.3%) had serious problems of vocabulary for effective verbal communication in English. Of the Indonesian respondents, 10 (22.7%) had no problem, 26 (59.1%) had very minor problems and 8 (18.2%) had serious problems of vocabulary for effective verbal communication in English.

Table 3b: Vocabulary for effective verbal communication in English

	Malaysian		Indonesian	
Problem Level	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
No Problem	14	24.6	10	22.7
Very Minor Problem	28	49.1	26	59.1
Serious Problem	15	26.3	8	18.2
Total	57	100.0	44	100.0

Item # 4: Understanding the Tone of Voice of American Speakers

Table 4a below shows, of both the Malaysian and Indonesian respondents, 38 (37.6%) had no problem, 46 (45.5%) had very minor problems and 17 (16.8%) had serious problems understanding the tone of voice of American speakers.

Table 4a: Understanding the tone of voice of an American speaker

Problem Levels	Frequency	Percentage
No Problem	38	37.6
Very Minor Problem	46	45.5
Serious Problem	17	16.8
Total	101	100.0

Table 4b below shows, of the Malaysian respondents, 20 (35.1%) had no problem, 27 (47.4%) had very minor problems and 10 (17.5%) had serious problems understanding the tone of voice of American speakers. Of the Indonesian respondents, 18 (40.9%) had no problem, 19 (43.2%) had very minor problems and 7 (15.9%) had serious problems understanding the tone of voice of American speakers.

Table 4b: Understanding the tone of voice of American speakers

	Malaysian		Indonesian	
Problem Levels	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
No Problem	20	35.1	18	40.9
Very Minor Problem	27	47.4	19	43.2
Serious Problem	10	17.5	7	15.9
Total	57	100.0	44	100.0

Item # 5: Knowing What to Say and How to Say It in English While Talking with Americans:

Of both the Malaysian and Indonesian respondents, 24 (23.8%) had no problem, 58 (57.4%) had very minor problems and 19 (18.8%) had serious problems knowing what to say and how to say it in English while talking with Americans.

Table 5a: Knowing what to say and how to say it in English while talking with Americans

Problem Level	Frequency	Percentage
No Problem	24	23.8
Very Minor Problem	58	57.4
Serious Problem	19	18.8
Total	101	100.0

Of the Malaysian respondents, 13 (22.8%) had no problem, 32 (56.1%) had very minor problems and 12 (21.1%) had serious problems knowing what to say and how to say it in English while talking with Americans. Of the Indonesian respondents, 11 (25.0%) had no problem, 26 (59.1%) had very minor problems and 7 (15.9%) had serious problems knowing what to say and how to say it in English while talking with Americans.

Table 5b: Knowing what to say and how to say it in English while talking with Americans

	Malaysian		Indonesian	
Problem Level	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
No Problem	13	22.8	11	25.0
Very Minor Problem	32	56.1	26	59.1
Serious Problem	12	21.1	7	15.9
Total	57	100.0	44	100.0

Item # 6: English Pronunciation:

Of both the Malaysian and Indonesian respondents, 24 (23.8%) had no problem, 57 (56.4%) had very minor problems and 20 (19.8%) had serious problems pronouncing English so that native speakers can understand.

Table 6a: English pronunciation

Problem Level	Frequency	Percentage
No Problem	24	23.8
Very Minor Problem	57	56.4
Serious Problem	20	19.8
Total	101	100.0

Of the Malaysian respondents, 12 (21.1%) had no problem, 31 (54.3%) had very minor problems and 14 (24.6%) had serious problems. Of the Indonesian respondents, 12 (27.3%) had no problem, 26 (59.1%) had very minor problems and 6 (13.6%) had serious problems pronouncing English so that native speakers can understand.

Table 6b: English pronunciation

	Malaysian		Indonesian	
Problem Levels	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
No Problem	12	21.1	12	27.3
Very Minor Problem	31	54.3	26	59.1
Serious Problem	14	24.6	6	13.6
Total	57	100.0	44	100.0

Item # 7: Making Ideas Clear to Native English Speakers

Of both the Malaysian and Indonesian respondents, 21 (20.8%) had no problem, 57 (56.4%) had very minor problems and 23 (22.8%) had serious problems making their ideas clear to native English speakers.

Table 7a: Making ideas clear to native English speakers

Problem Level	Frequency	Percentage
No Problem	21	20.8
Very Minor Problem	57	56.4
Serious Problem	23	22.8
Total	101	100.0

Of the Malaysian respondents, 10 (17.5%) had no problem, 32 (56.2%) had very minor problems and 15 (26.3%) had serious problems making their ideas clear to native English speakers. Of the Indonesian respondents, 11 (25.0%) had no problem, 25 (56.8%) had very minor problems and 8 (18.2%) had serious problems making their ideas clear to native speakers of English.

Table 7b: Making ideas clear to native English speakers

	Malaysian		Indonesian	
Problem Level	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
No Problem	10	17.5	11	25.0
Very Minor Problem	32	56.2	25	56.8
Serious Problem	15	26.3	8	18.2
Total	57	100.0	44	100.0

Item # 8: Understanding What Is Said by Americans at Their Normal Speed:

Of both the Malaysian and Indonesian respondents, 41 (40.6%) had no problem, 50 (49.5%) had very minor problems and 10 (9.9%) had serious problems understanding American speakers at their normal speed of speaking.

Table 8a: Understanding what is said by American speakers at their normal speed

Problem Level	Frequency	Percentage
No Problem	41	40.6
Very Minor Problem	50	49.5
Serious Problem	10	9.9
Total	101	100.0

Of the Malaysian respondents, 22 (38.6%) had no problem, 28 (49.1%) had very minor problems and 7 (12.3%) had serious problems understanding what is said by American speakers at their normal speed of speaking. Of the Indonesian respondents, 19 (43.2%) had no problem, 22 (50.0%) had very minor problems and 3 (6.8%) had serious problems understanding what is said by American speakers at their normal speed of speaking.

Table 8b: Understanding what is said by American speakers at their normal speed

	Malaysian		Indonesian	
Problem Level	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
No Problem	22	38.6	19	43.2
Very Minor Problem	28	49.1	22	50.0
Serious Problem	7	12.3	3	6.8
Total	57	100.0	44	100.0

Item # 9: Understanding American Attitudes, Customs and Social Circumstances:

Of both the Malaysian and Indonesian respondents, 32 (31.7%) had no problem, 50 (49.5%) had very minor problems and 19 (18.8%) had serious problems understanding American attitudes, customs and social circumstances.

Table 9a: Understanding American attitudes, customs and social circumstances

Problem Level	Frequency	Percentage
No Problem	32	31.7
Very Minor Problem	50	49.5
Serious Problem	19	18.8
Total	101	100.0

Of the Malaysian respondents, 14 (24.6%) had no problem, 32 (56.1%) had very minor problems and 11 (19.3%) had serious problems understanding American attitudes, customs and social circumstances. Of the Indonesian respondents, 18 (40.9%) had no problem, 18 (40.9%) had very minor problems and 8 (18.2%) had serious problems understanding American attitudes, customs and social circumstances.

Table 9b: Understanding American attitudes, customs and social circumstances

	Malaysian		Indonesian	
Problem Level	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
No Problem	14	24.6	18	40.9
Very Minor Problem	32	56.1	18	40.9
Serious Problem	11	19.3	8	18.2
Total	57	100.0	44	100.0

Item # 10: Understanding Classroom Lectures in English:

Of both the Malaysian and Indonesian respondents, 52 (51.5%) had no problem, 44 (43.5%) had very minor problems and 5 (5.0%) had serious problems understanding classroom lectures in English.

Table 10a: Understanding classroom lectures in English

Problem Level	Frequency	Percentage
No Problem	52	51.5
Very Minor Problem	44	43.5
Serious Problem	5	5.0
Total	101	100.0

Of the Malaysian respondents, 28 (49.1%) had no problem, 26 (45.6%) had very minor problems and 3 (5.3%) had serious problems understanding classroom lectures in English. Of the Indonesian respondents, 24 (54.5%) had no problem, 18 (41.0%) had very minor problems and 2 (4.5%) had serious problems understanding classroom lectures in English.

Table 10b: Understanding classroom lectures in English

	Malaysian		Indonesian	
Problem Levels	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
No Problem	28	49.1	24	54.5
Very Minor Problem	26	45.6	18	41.0
Serious Problem	3	5.3	2	4.5
Total	57	100.0	44	100.0

Item # 11: Asking Questions in English in the Classroom:

Of both the Malaysian and Indonesian respondents, 33 (32.7%) had no problem, 44 (43.5%) had very minor problems and 24 (23.8%) had serious problems asking questions in English in the classroom.

Table 11a: Asking questions in English in the classroom

Problem Level	Frequency	Percentage
No Problem	33	32.7
Very Minor Problem	44	43.5
Serious Problem	24	23.8
Total	101	100.0

Of the Malaysian respondents, 17 (29.8%) had no problem, 22 (38.6%) had very minor problems and 18 (31.6%) had serious problems asking questions in English in the classroom. Of the Indonesian respondents, 16 (36.4%) had no problem, 22 (50.0%) had very minor problems and 6 (13.6%) had serious problems asking questions in English in the classroom.

Table 11b: Asking questions in English in the classroom

	Malaysian		Indonesian	
Problem Level	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
No Problem	17	29.8	16	36.4
Very Minor Problem	22	38.6	22	50.0
Serious Problem	18	31.8	6	13.6
Total	57	100.0	44	100.0

Item # 12: Understanding Answers and Comments Given by Native English Speakers to Questions in the Classroom:

Of both the Malaysian and Indonesian respondents, 37 (36.6%) had no problem, 50 (49.9%) had very minor problems and 14 (13.5%) had serious problems understanding answers and comments given by native speakers of English to questions in the classroom.

Table 12a: Understanding answers and comments given by native speakers of English to questions in the classroom

Problem Level	Frequency	Percentage
No Problem	37	36.6
Very Minor Problem	50	49.9
Serious Problem	14	13.5
Total	101	100.0

Of the Malaysian respondents, 21 (36.8%) had no problem, 28 (49.2%) had very minor problems and 8 (14.0%) had serious problems understanding answers and comments given by native speakers of English to questions in the classroom. Of the Indonesian respondents, 16 (36.4%) had no problem, 22 (50.0%) had very minor problems and 6 (13.6%) had serious problems understanding answers and comments given by native speakers of English to questions in the classroom.

Table 12b: Understanding answers and comments given by native speakers of English to questions in the classroom

	Malaysian		Indonesian	
Problem Level	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
No Problem	21	36.8	16	36.4
Very Minor Problem	28	49.2	22	50.0
Serious Problem	8	14.0	6	13.6
Total	57	100.0	44	100.0

Item # 13: Participating in Whole Class Discussions in English:

Of both the Malaysian and Indonesian respondents, 21 (20.8%) had no problem, 45 (44.5%) had very minor problems and 35 (34.7%) had serious problems participating in whole class discussions in English.

Table 13a: Participating in whole class discussions in English

Problem Level	Frequency	Percentage
No Problem	21	20.8
Very Minor Problem	45	44.5
Serious Problem	35	34.7
Total	101	100.5

Of the Malaysian respondents, 10 (17.5%) had no problem, 24 (42.1%) had very minor problems and 23 (40.4%) had serious problems participating in whole class discussions in English. Of the Indonesian respondents, 11 (25.0%) had no problem, 21 (47.7%) had very minor problems and 12 (27.3%) had serious problems participating in whole class discussions in English.

Table 13b: Participating in whole class discussions in English

	Malaysian		Indonesian	
Problem Level	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
No Problem	10	17.5	11	25.0
Very Minor Problem	24	42.1	21	47.7
Serious Problem	23	40.4	12	27.3
Total	57	100.0	44	100.0

Item # 14. Participating in Group Discussions in English:

Of both the Malaysian and Indonesian respondents, 29 (28.7%) had no problem, 46 (45.6%) had very minor problems and 26 (25.7%) had serious problems participating in group discussions in English.

Table 14a: Participating in group discussions in English

Problem Level	Frequency	Percentage
No Problem	29	28.7
Very Minor Problem	46	45.6
Serious Problem	26	25.7
Total	101	100.0

Of the Malaysian respondents, 17 (29.8%) had no problem, 23 (40.4%) had very minor problems and 17 (29.8%) had serious problems participating in group discussions in English. Of the Indonesian respondents, 12 (27.3%) had no problem, 23 (52.2%) had very minor problems and 9 (20.5%) had serious problems participating in group discussions in English.

Table 14b: Participating in group discussions in English

	Malaysian		Indonesian	
Problem Level	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
No Problem	17	29.8	12	27.3
Very Minor Problem	23	40.4	23	52.2
Serious Problem	17	29.8	9	20.5
Total	57	100.0	44	100.0

Item # 15: Giving Speeches/Oral Reports in English:

Of both the Malaysian and Indonesian respondents, 19 (18.8%) had no problem, 46 (45.5%) had very minor problems and 35 (34.7%) had serious problems giving speeches/oral reports in English.

Table 15a: Giving speeches/oral reports in English

Problem Level	Frequency	Percentage
No Problem	19	18.8
Very Minor Problem	46	45.5
Serious Problem	35	34.7
Missing cases	01	1.0
Total	101	100.0

Of the Malaysian respondents, 12 (21.1%) had no problem, 24 (42.1%) had very minor problems and 20 (35.1%) had serious problems giving speeches/oral reports in English. Of the Indonesian respondents, 7 (15.9%) had no problem, 22 (50.0%) had very minor problems and 15 (34.1%) had serious problems giving speeches/oral reports in English.

Table 15b: Giving speeches/oral reports in English

	Malaysian		Indonesian	
Problem Level	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
No Problem	12	21.1	7	15.9
Very Minor Problem	24	42.1	22	50.0
Serious Problem	20	35.1	15	34.1
Missing Cases	01	1.8		
Total	57	100.0	44	100.0

Item # 16: Non-Verbal Communication in the Classroom:

Of both the Malaysian and Indonesian respondents, 34 (33.7%) had no problem, 44 (43.5%) had very minor problems and 23 (22.8%) had serious problems of non-verbal communication in the classroom.

Table 16a: Non-verbal communication in the classroom

Problem Level	Frequency	Percentage
No Problem	34	33.7
Very Minor Problem	44	43.5
Serious Problem	23	22.8
Total	101	100.0

Of the Malaysian respondents, 16 (28.1%) had no problem, 25 (43.8%) had very minor problems and 16 (28.1%) had serious problems of non-verbal communication in the classroom. Of the Indonesian respondents, 18 (40.9%) had no problem, 19 (43.2%) had very minor problems and 7 (15.9%) had serious problems of non-verbal communication in the classroom.

Table 16b: Non-verbal communication in the classroom

	Malaysian		Indonesian	
Problem Level	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
No Problem	16	28.1	18	40.9
Very Minor Problem	25	43.8	19	43.2
Serious Problem	16	28.1	7	15.9
Total	57	100.0	44	100.0

Item # 17: Talking with American Instructors in the Classroom:

Of both the Malaysian and Indonesian respondents, 35 (34.7%) had no problem, 43 (42.5%) had very minor problems and 23 (22.8%) had serious problems talking with American instructors in the classroom.

Table 17a: Talking with American instructors in the classroom

Problem Level	Frequency	Percentage
No Problem	35	34.7
Very Minor Problem	43	42.5
Serious Problem	23	22.8
Total	101	100.0

Of the Malaysian respondents, 15 (26.3%) had no problem, 29 (50.9%) had very minor problems and 13 (22.8%) had serious problems talking with American instructors in the classroom. Of the Indonesian respondents, 20 (45.5%) had no problem, 14 (31.8%) had very minor problems and 10 (22.7%) had serious problems talking with American instructors in the classroom.

Table 17b: Talking with American instructors in the classroom

	Malaysian		Indonesian	
Problem Level	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
No Problem	15	26.3	20	45.5
Very Minor Problem	29	50.9	14	31.8
Serious Problem	13	22.8	10	22.7
Total	57	100.0	44	100.0

Item # 18: Reading College Textbooks in English:

Of both the Malaysian and Indonesian respondents, 48 (47.5%) had no problem, 45 (44.6%) had very minor problems and 8 (7.9%) had serious problems reading college textbooks in English.

Table 18a: Reading college textbooks in English

Problem Level	Frequency	Percentage
No Problem	48	47.5
Very Minor Problem	45	44.6
Serious Problem	8	7.9
Total	101	100.0

Of the Malaysian respondents, 24 (42.1%) had no problem, 28 (49.1%) had very minor problems and 5 (8.8%) had serious problems reading college textbooks in English. Of the Indonesian respondents, 24 (54.5%) had no problem, 17 (38.7%) had very minor problems and 3 (6.8%) had serious problems reading college textbooks in English.

Table 18b: Reading college textbooks in English

	Malaysian		Indonesian	
Problem Level	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
No Problem	24	42.1	24	54.5
Very Minor Problem	28	49.1	17	38.7
Serious Problem	5	8.8	3	6.8
Total	57	100.0	44	100.0

Item # 19: Performing Large Quantities of Reading in English Within a Short Period of Time:

Of both the Malaysian and Indonesian respondents, 28 (27.7%) had no problem, 45 (44.6%) had very minor problems and 28 (27.7%) had serious problems performing large quantities of reading within a short period of time.

Table 19a: Performing large quantities of reading within a short period of time

Problem Level	Frequency	Percentage
No Problem	28	27.7
Very Minor Problem	45	44.6
Serious Problem	28	27.7
Total	101	100.0

Of the Malaysian respondents, 15 (26.3%) had no problem, 24 (42.1%) had very minor problems and 18 (31.6%) had serious problems performing large quantities of reading in English within a short period of time. Of the Indonesian respondents, 13 (29.5%) had no problem, 21 (47.8%) had very minor problems and 10 (22.7%) had serious problems performing large quantities of reading in English within a short period of time.

Table 19b: Performing large quantities of reading in English within a short period of time

	Malaysian		Indonesian	
Problem Level	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
No Problem	15	26.3	13	29.5
Very Minor Problem	24	42.1	21	47.8
Serious Problem	18	31.6	10	22.7
Total	57	100.0	44	100.0

Item # 20: Understanding Written Requirements for a Course:

Of both the Malaysian and Indonesian respondents, 51 (50.5%) had no problem, 43 (42.6%) had very minor problems and 7 (6.9%) had serious problems.

Table 20a: Understanding written requirements for a course

Problem Level	Frequency	Percentage
No Problem	51	50.5
Very Minor Problem	43	42.6
Serious Problem	7	6.9
Total	101	100.0

Of the Malaysian respondents, 26 (45.6%) had no problem, 26 (45.6%) had very minor problems and 5 (8.8%) had serious problems understanding written requirements for a course. Of the Indonesian respondents, 25 (56.8%) had no problem, 17 (38.7%) had very minor problems and 2 (4.5%) had serious problems understanding written requirements for a course.

Table 20b: Understanding written requirements for a course

	Malaysian		Indonesian	
Problem Level	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
No Problem	26	45.6	25	56.8
Very Minor Problem	26	45.6	17	38.7
Serious Problem	5	8.8	2	4.5
Total	57	100.0	44	100.0

Item # 21: English Vocabulary to Understand Textbooks in a Course:

Of both the Malaysian and Indonesian respondents, 37 (36.6%) had no problem, 50 (49.5%) had very minor problems and 14 (13.9%) had serious problems of English vocabulary needed to understand textbooks in a course.

Table 21a: English vocabulary to understand textbooks in a course

Problem Level	Frequency	Percentage
No Problem	37	36.6
Very Minor Problem	50	49.5
Serious Problem	14	13.9
Total	101	100.0

Of the Malaysian respondents, 19 (33.3%) had no problem, 28 (49.2%) had very minor problems and 10 (17.5%) had serious problems of English vocabulary needed to understand textbooks in a course. Of the Indonesian respondents, 18 (40.9%) had no problem, 22 (50.0%) had very minor problems and 4 (9.1%) had serious problems of English vocabulary needed to understand textbooks in a course.

Table 21b: English vocabulary to understand textbooks in a course

	Malaysian		Indonesian	
Problem Level	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
No Problem	19	33.3	18	40.9
Very Minor Problem	28	49.2	22	50.0
Serious Problem	10	17.5	4	9.1
Total	57	100.0	44	100.0

Item # 22: Comprehending English Words with Multiple Meanings:

Of both the Malaysian and Indonesian respondents, 28 (27.7%) had no problem, 51 (50.5%) had very minor problems and 22 (21.8%) had serious problems comprehending English words with multiple meanings.

Table 22a: Comprehending English words with multiple meanings

Problem Level	Frequency	Percentage
No Problem	28	27.7
Very Minor Problem	51	50.5
Serious Problem	22	21.8
Total	101	100.0

Of the Malaysian respondents, 15 (26.3%) had no problem, 30 (52.6%) had very minor problems and 12 (21.1%) had serious problems comprehending English words with multiple meanings. Of the Indonesian respondents, 13 (29.5%) had no problem, 21 (47.8%) had very minor problems and 10 (22.7%) had serious problems comprehending English words with multiple meanings.

Table 22b: Comprehending English words with multiple meanings

	Malaysian		Indonesian	
Problem level	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
No Problem	15	26.3	13	29.5
Very Minor Problem	30	52.6	21	47.8
Serious Problem	12	21.1	10	22.7
Total	57	100.0	44	100.0

Item # 23: Study Skills:

Of both the Malaysian and Indonesian respondents, 31 (30.7%) had no problem, 45 (44.5%) had very minor problems and 25 (24.8%) had serious problems employing efficient study skills.

Table 23a: Study skills

Problem Level	Frequency	Percentage
No Problem	31	30.7
Very Minor Problem	45	44.5
Serious Problem	25	24.8
Total	101	100.0

Of the Malaysian respondents, 16 (28.1%) had no problem, 24 (42.1%) had very minor problems and 17 (29.8%) had serious problems employing efficient study skills. Of the Indonesian respondents, 15 (34.1%) had no problem, 21 (47.7%) had very minor problems and 8 (18.2%) had serious problems employing efficient study skills.

Table 23b: Study skills

	Malaysian		Indonesian	
Problem Level	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
No Problem	16	28.1	15	34.1
Very Minor Problem	24	42.1	21	47.7
Serious Problem	17	29.8	8	18.2
Total	57	100.0	44	100.0

Item # 24: Organizing and Synthesizing Information for a Course:

Of both the Malaysian and Indonesian respondents, 35 (34.7%) had no problem, 50 (49.5%) had very minor problems and 16 (15.8%) had serious problems organizing and synthesizing information for a course.

Table 24a: Organizing and synthesizing information for a course

Problem Level	Frequency	Percentage
No Problem	35	34.7
Very Minor Problem	50	49.5
Serious Problem	16	15.8
Total	101	100.0

Of the Malaysian respondents, 18 (31.6%) had no problem, 27 (47.3%) had very minor problems and 12 (21.1%) had serious problems organizing and synthesizing information for a course. Of the Indonesian respondents, 17 (38.6%) had no problem, 23 (52.3%) had very minor problems and 4 (9.1%) had serious problems organizing and synthesizing information for a course.

Table 24b: Organizing and synthesizing information for a course

	Malaysian		Indonesian	
Problem Level	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
No Problem	18	31.6	17	38.6
Very Minor Problem	27	47.3	23	52.3
Serious Problem	12	21.1	4	9.1
Total	57	100.0	44	100.0

Item # 25: Writing Research Papers in English:

Of both the Malaysian and Indonesian respondents, 20 (19.8%) had no problem, 49 (48.5%) had very minor problems and 32 (31.7%) had serious problems writing research papers in English.

Table 25a: Writing research papers in English

Problem Level	Frequency	Percentage
No Problem	20	19.8
Very Minor Problem	49	48.5
Serious Problem	32	31.7
Total	101	100.0

Of the Malaysian respondents, 9 (15.8%) had no problem, 28 (49.1%) had very minor problems and 20 (35.1%) had serious problems writing research papers in English. Of the Indonesian respondents, 11 (25.0%) had no problem, 21 (47.7%) had very minor problems and 12 (27.3%) had serious problems writing research papers in English.

Table 25b: Writing research papers in English

	Malaysian		Indonesian	
Problem Level	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
No Problem	9	15.8	11	25.0
Very Minor Problem	28	49.1	21	47.7
Serious Problem	20	35.1	12	27.3
Total	57	100.0	44	100.0

Item # 26: Writing Reports, Projects and Class Assignments in English:

Of both the Malaysian and Indonesian respondents, 23 (22.8%) had no problem, 54 (53.4%) had very minor problems and 24 (23.8%) had serious problems writing reports, projects and class assignments.

Table 26a: Writing reports, projects and class assignments in English

Problem Level	Frequency	Percentage
No Problem	23	22.8
Very Minor Problem	54	53.4
Serious Problem	24	23.8
Total	101	100.0

Of the Malaysian respondents, 10 (17.5%) had no problem, 30 (52.7%) had very minor problems and 17 (29.8%) had serious problems writing reports, projects and class assignments in English. Of the Indonesian respondents, 13 (29.5%) had no problem, 24 (54.6%) had very minor problems and 7 (15.9%) had serious problems writing reports, projects and class assignments in English.

Table 26b: Writing reports, projects and class assignments in English

	Malaysian		Indonesian	
Problem Level	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
No Problem	10	17.5	13	29.5
Very Minor Problem	30	52.7	24	54.6
Serious Problem	17	29.8	7	15.9
Total	57	100.0	44	100.0

Item # 27: Paraphrasing Passages in English:

Of both the Malaysian and Indonesian respondents, 25 (24.8%) had no problem, 49 (48.5%) had very minor problems and 27 (26.7%) had serious problems paraphrasing passages in English.

Table 27a: Paraphrasing passages in English

Problem Level	Frequency	Percentage
No Problem	25	24.8
Very Minor Problem	49	48.5
Serious Problem	27	26.7
Total	101	100.0

Of the Malaysian respondents, 10 (17.5%) had no problem, 32 (56.2%) had very minor problems and 15 (26.3%) had serious problems paraphrasing passages in

English. Of the Indonesian respondents, 15 (34.1%) had no problem, 17 (38.6%) had very minor problems and 12 (27.3%) had serious problems paraphrasing passages in English.

Table 27b: Paraphrasing passages in English

	Malaysian		Indonesian	
Problem Level	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
No Problem	10	17.5	15	34.1
Very Minor Problem	32	56.2	17	38.6
Serious Problem	15	26.3	12	27.3
Total	57	100.0	44	100.0

Item # 28: Writing Quickly in English:

Of both the Malaysian and Indonesian respondents, 28 (27.7%) had no problem, 48 (47.5%) had very minor problems and 25 (24.8%) had serious problems writing quickly in English.

Table 28a: Writing quickly in English

Problem Level	Frequency	Percentage
No Problem	28	27.7
Very Minor Problem	48	47.5
Serious Problem	25	24.8
Total	101	100.0

Of the Malaysian respondents, 16 (28.1%) had no problem, 27 (47.3%) had very minor problems and 14 (24.6%) had serious problems writing quickly in English. Of the Indonesian respondents, 12 (27.3%) had no problem, 21 (47.7%) had very minor problems and 11 (25.0%) had serious problems writing quickly in English.

Table 28b: Writing quickly in English

	Malaysian		Indonesian	
Problem Level	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
No Problem	16	28.1	12	27.3
Very Minor Problem	27	47.3	21	47.7
Serious Problem	14	24.6	11	25.0
Total	57	100.0	44	100.0

Item # 29: Writing Concisely in English:

Of both the Malaysian and Indonesian respondents, 17 (16.8%) had no problem, 50 (49.5%) had very minor problems and 34 (33.7%) had serious problems writing concisely in English.

Table 29a: Writing concisely in English

Problem Level	Frequency	Percentage
No Problem	17	16.8
Very Minor Problem	50	49.5
Serious Problem	34	33.7
Total	101	100.0

Of the Malaysian respondents, 10 (17.5%) had no problem, 27 (47.4%) had very minor problems and 20 (35.1%) had serious problems writing concisely in English. Of the Indonesian respondents, 7 (15.9%) had no problem, 23 (52.3%) had very minor problems and 14 (31.8%) had serious problems writing concisely in English.

Table 29b: Writing concisely in English

	Malaysian		Indonesian	
Problem Level	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
No Problem	10	17.5	7	15.9
Very Minor Problem	27	47.4	23	52.3
Serious Problem	20	35.1	14	31.8
Total	57	100.0	44	100.0

Item # 30: Meeting Deadlines for Written Assignments:

Of both the Malaysian and Indonesian respondents, 48 (47.5%) had no problem, 39 (38.6%) had very minor problems and 14 (13.9%) had serious problems meeting deadlines for written assignments.

Table 30a: Meeting deadlines for written assignments

Problem Level	Frequency	Percentage
No Problem	48	47.5
Very Minor Problem	39	38.6
Serious Problem	14	13.9
Total	101	100.0

Of the Malaysian respondents, 25 (43.9%) had no problem, 20 (35.0%) had very minor problems and 12 (21.1%) had serious problems meeting deadlines for written assignments. Of the Indonesian respondents, 23 (52.3%) had no problem, 19 (43.2%) had very minor problems and 2 (4.5%) had serious problems meeting deadlines for written assignments.

Table 30b: Meeting deadlines for written assignments

	Malaysian		Indonesian	
Problem Level	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
No Problem	25	43.9	23	52.3
Very Minor Problem	20	35.0	19	43.2
Serious Problem	12	21.1	2	4.5
Total	57	100.0	44	100.0

Item # 31: English Vocabulary for Writing Essays, Reports, Etc.:

Of both the Malaysian and Indonesian respondents, 26 (25.7%) had no problem, 50 (49.5%) had very minor problems and 24 (23.8%) had serious problems of English vocabulary for writing essays, reports, etc.

Table 31a: English vocabulary for writing essays, reports, etc.

Problem Level	Frequency	Percentage
No Problem	26	25.7
Very Minor Problem	50	49.5
Serious Problem	24	23.8
Missing Cases	1	1.0
Total	101	100.0

Of the Malaysian respondents, 17 (29.8%) had no problem, 27 (47.4%) had very minor problems and 13 (22.8%) had serious problems of English vocabulary for writing essays, reports, etc. Of the Indonesian respondents, 9 (20.5%) had no problem, 23 (52.3%) had very minor problems and 11 (25.0%) had serious problems of English vocabulary for writing essays, reports, etc.

Table 31b: English vocabulary for writing essays, reports, etc.

	Malaysian		Indonesian	
Problem Level	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
No Problem	17	29.8	9	20.5
Very Minor Problem	27	47.4	23	52.3
Serious Problem	13	22.8	11	25.0
Missing Cases	___	___	1	2.3
Total	57	100.0	44	100.0

CHAPTER 5

ANSWERING QUESTION # 1 OF THE STUDY: WHAT ARE THE MAJOR ENGLISH LANGUAGE-BASED PROBLEMS OF THE INDONESIAN AND MALAYSIAN STUDENTS AT A MAJOR AMERICAN STATE UNIVERSITY?

Introduction:

The intent of this chapter is to answer question # 1 of the study: What are the major English language-based problems of the Indonesian and Malaysian students at a major American state university? In doing so, the chapter identifies the major English language-based problems and tests hypothesis # 1 which seeks to determine the relationships/associations between students' personal and academic characteristics and language problems.

The results of both quantitative and qualitative data on the findings are discussed and a conclusion is drawn from each finding. Wherever possible, the findings of the study are discussed in light of previous research and theory. The quantitative data included (a) frequencies and percentages of students who reported having English language-based problems and (b) results of chi-square tests which showed relationships/associations between respondents' personal and academic characteristics and language problems (both specific and overall).

The qualitative data for question # 1 were gathered through interviews, observation of students in their classrooms, examination of samples of writing and lecture notes, and respondents' comments.

The Function of the Qualitative Data:

In this chapter, the function of the qualitative data is to further elaborate on the English language-based problems identified through the questionnaire survey. Face-to-face interviews were held to allow students to reflect further and to elaborate on the English language-based problems. In addition, the data from (1) the selected comments of the questionnaire respondents; (2) observation of students in their classrooms; and (3) samples of students' essays and lecture notes were analyzed to provide further insights into the questionnaire and interview findings.

As stated in the methodology chapter, the findings are compared/contrasted with previous research and theory and an attempt is made to show how this study builds on previous research and theory.

The Organization of the Qualitative Findings:

As stated earlier, the purpose here was to learn more, by elaborating/expanding on what was already identified through the questionnaire, about the nature and scope of the English language-based problems of the populations for the study. Therefore, the researcher followed the already established organization of the questionnaire findings and attempted to provide further insights into those findings.

How the Qualitative Elements of a Specific Finding ere Determined:

What the questionnaire respondents reported as a problem became the basis for a finding. The researcher, then, selected those interview responses, questionnaire comments or aspects of problems in the samples of writing or lecture notes which appeared to be predominant or representative in his subjective judgment. In short, the questionnaire provided the categories which were used to organize the qualitative data so that the latter could provide depth in interpreting the former.

Finding # 1: Informal Conversations in English.

Quantitative Results:

More than sixty-two percent (62.4%) of the 101 questionnaire respondents reported that they encountered problems having informal conversations in English. Of this total, 44.6% reported this was a very minor problem and 17.8% reported this was a serious problem.

A chi-square analysis indicated a high degree of association between the problem of informal conversation in English and residing in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S. A higher percentage of students (68.9%) who had not resided in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S. reported having problem than students (41.6%) who had resided in an English-speaking country:

$$\chi^{\checkmark}(3,\ N = 101) = 6.07,\ p < .05$$

A high degree of association was also found between the problem of informal conversation in English and the length of stay in the U.S. A higher percentage of students (81.5%) whose length of stay in the U.S. was below the overall average reported having problem than students (50.8%) whose length of stay in the U.S. was at or above the overall average:

$$\chi^{\checkmark}(3,\ N = 101) = 11.09,\ p < .05$$

Qualitative Results:

Each of the six interview respondents were asked to elaborate on the nature of their problems with informal conversations in English. The respondents appeared to have experienced various problems. One student stated that he had a problem initiating a conversation or continuing talking in a prolonged conversation in English at an informal social gathering. A second student experienced that he was not often familiar with the subject of a conversation with an American. A third student stated that she sometimes felt lost in a conversation. Finally, for a fourth student, this problem meant that she did not know some English words although she knew their meanings in her native language.

The present study supported previous research (Rogers, 1977; & Edwards, 1978) and concluded that Indonesian and Malaysian students had a problem with informal conversations in English at an informal level.

Finding # 2: Speaking Fluently in English.

Quantitative Results:

More than seventy-seven percent of the 101 questionnaire respondents reported they had a problem of some kind speaking fluently in English. Of this total, 56.4% reported this was a very minor problem and 20.8% reported this was a serious problem.

A chi-square analysis indicated a high degree of association between the problem of speaking fluently in English and the use of English as the medium of instruction in the subjects' home country. A higher percentage of students (82.1%) who had not used English as the medium of instruction in the home country reported having problems than students (67.7%) who had used English as the medium of instruction in the home country:

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101), 7.89, p. < .05$$

A high degree of association was also discovered between the problem of speaking fluently in English and residing in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S. A higher percentage of students 64.4%) who had not resided in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S. reported having problems than did students (54.1%) who had resided in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S.:

$$\chi^{\checkmark}(3, N = 101) = 10.44, p < .05$$

A t-test indicated that the mean score for the Malaysian group (M = 2.1228) was significantly higher than the mean score for the Indonesian group (M = 1.8409), t(99) = 2.02, p < .05.

Qualitative Results:

The interview data indicated that the problems of fluency in English affected students in various ways and that the problems were peculiar to individual students. One of the students stated that she had a problem being understood by Americans because of her accent. She explained this in the following terms, "Americans have problems with my accent. I know what I am talking about, but they don't. They don't understand [me] because of my accent." For her, this problem meant that her fluency of expression was hindered. A second aspect of the problem encountered by this student was a lack of automaticity of expression. The following example illustrates this: "I'm not fluent because I've to stop to think during a conversation in order to find a word or expression."

Another student indicated that she had to think in her native language first and then translate the idea/thought into English, a process that caused delay in her response. She stated, "Sometimes it causes you to stop because if you find an Indonesian word but you can't find, in your mind, the English word for it, you've to stop." She added that this happened not only when she gave an oral presentation but also when she tried to ask a question or answer a question in her oral presentation.

The present study supported previous research findings (Jordan, 1977) and concluded that Indonesian and Malaysian students in Indiana University had a problem with fluency in English.

Finding # 3: Having an Adequate English Vocabulary for Effective Verbal Communication.

Quantitative Results:

More than seventy-six percent of the 101 questionnaire respondents reported they had a problem of some kind with English vocabulary in verbal communication. Of this total, 53.5% had a very minor problem and 22.8% had a serious problem.

A chi-square test indicated a high degree of association between the problem of English vocabulary for verbal communication and residence in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S. A higher percentage of students (84.4%) who had not resided in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S. reported having problem than students (50.0%) who had resided in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S.:

$$\chi^{\checkmark}(3,\ N = 101) = 12.08,\ p < .05$$

A high degree of association was also found between the problem of English vocabulary for verbal communication and the length of stay in the U.S. A higher percentage of students (89.5%) whose length of stay in the U.S. was below the overall average reported having problems than did students (68.3%) whose length of stay was at or above the overall average:

$$\chi^{\checkmark}(3,\ N = 101) = 8.03,\ p. < .05$$

Qualitative Results:

No commonality was found in terms of students' responses concerning their problems with vocabulary for oral communication in English. One student's problem was that she often used to forget English words during her communication for not using them often enough. For others, this problem meant a lack of familiarity with some English words or expressions that are understandable to Americans.

The present study supported previous research (Rogers, 1977; Edwards, 1978; & Sen, 1970) and concluded that Indonesian and Malaysian students had a problem with

English vocabulary in verbal communication.

Finding # 4: Understanding the Tone of Voice of an American Speaker.

More than sixty-two percent (62.3%) of the 100 respondents reported that they had problems understanding the tone of voice of American speakers. Of this total, 45.5% reported this was a very minor problem and 16.8% reported this was a serious problem.

None of the key studies cited in the review of literature examined this problem. However, the present study concluded that the majority of the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University had a problem understanding the tone of voice of American speakers.

Finding # 5: Knowing What to Say and How to Say It in English while Talking with Americans.

More than seventy-six percent of the 100 respondents reported that they had problems knowing what to say and how to say it in English while talking with Americans. Of this total, 57.4% reported this was a very minor problem and 18.8% reported this was a serious problem.

Finding # 6: Pronouncing English so that Native English Speakers Can Understand.

Quantitative Results:

More than seventy-six percent of the 101 questionnaire respondents reported they had a problem with English pronunciation. Of this total, 56.4% reported this was a very minor problem and 19.8% reported this was a serious problem.

A high degree of association was discovered between the problem of English pronunciation and speaking English at home as a first or second language. A higher percentage of students (87.8%) in whose homes English was not spoken reported having pronunciation problems than students (65.3%) in whose homes English was spoken:

$$\chi^{\checkmark}(3, N = 101) = 8.26, p < .05$$

A high degree of association was also found between the problem of English pronunciation and residing in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S. A higher percentage of respondents (83.1%) who had not resided in an English-speaking country reported having problem than respondents (54.1%) who had resided in an English-speaking country:

$$\chi^{\checkmark}(3, N = 101) = 9.29, p < .05$$

Qualitative Results:

During the interviews, respondents reported that they had problems with intonation and pronunciation of English words, especially, multi-syllable words and being understood by American students and professors. One Indonesian student explained how his incorrect pronunciation of the word Indianapolis led to misunderstanding by a telephone operator, "When I pronounce the word Indianapolis on the phone, they think I'm referring to the Indiana University Police Department ... When I called operator asking her to connect me to Indianapolis, she connected me to I.U.P.D. [Indiana University Police Department]." Another Indonesian student indicated that sometimes she had difficulty making the correct sound of s, e.g., in the word presentation. The way she pronounced, it sounded like the sound of c, with an e or i after it. The same student stated that she also had a problem pronouncing English words that look alike but have different meanings, e.g., receive and recipe.

Data from observations indicated that respondents not only spoke in a soft and gentle manner but also had a low speaking voice which made it hard for Americans to understand them.

The present study supported previous research (Sen, 1970) and concluded that Indonesian and Malaysian students had difficulty of some kind with English pronunciation.

Finding # 7: Making One's Ideas Clear to Native English Speakers.

Quantitative Results:

More than seventy-nine percent of the respondents reported they had a problem with making their ideas clear to native English speakers. Of this total, 56.4% reported this was a very minor problem and 22.8% reported this was a serious problem. More than seventy-six percent (76.2%) of the respondents reported having a problem with knowing what to say and how to say something in English when talking with Americans.

A high degree of association was found between the problem of making one's ideas clear to native English speakers and length of stay in the U.S. A higher percentage of respondents (92.1%) whose length of stay in the U.S. was below the overall average reported having problem than respondents (71.4%) whose length of stay in the U.S. was at or above the overall average:

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101) = 10.29, p < .05$$

Qualitative Results:

The problem that emerged as common to most of the interview respondents was their lack of appropriate English words or expressions. When asked to explain what he meant by this problem, one student stated, "For lack of appropriate [English] words, expressions or idioms, I try to use a lot of words and take a lot of time to explain what I intend to say ... I resort to a lengthy process and a lot of other words or expressions to get my message across." Another student stated that for lack of familiarity with some common American expressions, e.g., what's cooking, catch 22, etc., she was unable to respond to [her] American friends at the initial stage of her stay in the U.S.

Other problems included not remembering certain English words, not being able to sequence words correctly in spoken English and feeling bad or frustrated about not being able to respond to certain questions and statements made by Americans.

The present study supported previous research (Hull, 1978; & Moore, 1987) and concluded that Indonesian and Malaysian students had difficulty communicating their thoughts and ideas clearly in English and felt bad or frustrated for not being able to communicate their thoughts.

Finding # 8: Understanding What Is Said by Americans at Their Normal Speed.

Quantitative Results:

More than fifty-nine percent of the 101 questionnaire respondents reported they had a problem with understanding what was said by Americans at their normal speed of speaking. Of this total, 49.5% reported this was a very minor problem and 9.9% reported this was a serious problem.

A high degree of association was found between the problem of understanding Americans at their normal speed of speaking and the length of time spent studying English. A higher percentage of respondents (63.1%) whose length of studying English was at or above the national average reported having problem than respondents (54.7%) whose length of studying English was below the national average:

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101) = 9.0, p < .05$$

A high degree of association was also discovered between the problem of understanding what is said by Americans at their normal speed and length of stay in the U.S. A higher percentage of respondents (76.3%) whose length of stay in the U.S. was below the overall average reported having problems than respondents (49.2%) whose length of stay in the U.S. was at or above the overall average:

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101) = 9.62, p < .05$$

Qualitative Results:

Questionnaire comments indicated that students were unable to understand when Americans spoke fast or spoke regional English or a dialect, especially, black dialect. One student wrote, "If they speak a dialect (and use words unfamiliar to me), I may not understand them even if they speak slowly. But if you're speaking standard

English and I know most words and the context in which they're being used, I mostly understand them in spite of the fast speed. But still the speed is a problem for me."

The present study supported previous research (Sen, 1970; Jordan, 1977; & Syananondh, 1983) and concluded that the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University had problems understanding American English and regional English accent or dialect.

Finding # 9: Understanding American Attitudes, Customs and Social Circumstances.

More than sixty-eight percent of the 100 respondents reported that they had problems understanding American attitudes, customs and social circumstances. Of this total, 49.5% reported this was a very minor problem and 18.8% reported this was a serious problem.

None of the key studies cited in the review of literature examined this problem of foreign students. However, the present study concluded that the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University encountered problems understanding American attitudes, customs and social circumstances.

Finding # 10: Understanding Classroom Lectures in English.

Quantitative Results:

Over forty-eight percent of the respondents reported having a problem with understanding classroom lectures in English. Of this total, 43.5% reported this was a very minor problem and 5.0% reported this was a serious problem.

A high degree of association was found between the problem of understanding classroom lectures in English and length of stay in the U.S. A higher percentage of respondents (65.8%) whose length of stay in the U.S. was below the overall average reported having problem than respondents (38.1%) whose length of stay in the U.S. was at or above the overall average:

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101) = 7.57, p < .05$$

Qualitative Results:

Various students indicated having various kinds of problems related to understanding classroom lectures in English. One student expressed inability to understand a professor who spoke fast. Another student had a problem understanding examples given by the professor. Some students had problems understanding professors who did not speak standard English. Finally, one student stated that he had experienced difficulty understanding American jokes, as he said, "... some lecturers like jokes and use American jokes. I've no idea about what they talk. All of a sudden I find that everyone in the class is laughing. But I can't be a part of that humor."

The present study supported previous research (Sen, 1970; Jordan, 1977; & Sharma, 1971) and concluded that Indonesian and Malaysian students had difficulty understanding classroom lectures in English.

Finding # 11: Asking Questions in English in the Classroom.

Quantitative Results:

Over sixty-seven percent of the respondents reported they had difficulty asking questions in English in the classroom. Of this total, 43.5% reported this was a very minor problem and 23.8% reported this was a serious problem.

There was a high degree of association between problems of asking questions in English in the classroom and length of stay in the U.S. A higher percentage of respondents (89.5%) whose length of stay in the U.S. was below the overall average reported having problem than respondents (54.0%) whose length of stay in the U.S. was at or above the overall average:

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101) = 15.81, p < .05$$

Qualitative Results:

Interview respondents reported American classroom to be too fast-paced, and that they were unable to quickly seize an opportunity to ask a question. They also experienced hesitation, articulation problems, lack of self-confidence, anxiety, and feeling intimidated about asking questions in the classroom.

One student stated that he used to hesitate a lot about asking questions. He said, "I've to think twice about asking questions." He perceived that his questions in English would not be understandable to American professors and students in the classroom. Another student found that the American class was too fast-paced for her to ask questions, as she described, "You know that a discussion is going fast and a friend of mine ... helped me to explain it to my professor and my professor said, 'This is closed.' You see that if they are not helpful, I cannot survive in the program ... the professors are in a hurry."

Some of the students experienced anxiety about asking questions in English in the American classroom. One student stated that she felt too intimidated to ask a question or to speak up in the classroom where most students were American, "When I speak up, maybe I'm too self-conscious or something, but it's like everyone else keeps quiet, and it is very uncomfortable." Another student said she felt "both shy and nervous, as she described, "Sometimes I cannot express my thoughts in English. So I feel quite nervous about asking questions in class.... I think I may be embarrassed ... someone may laugh at me or make fun of me ... I also think my expressions may not be correct ... my sentence, my grammar may be incorrect." Another student mentioned that he used to procrastinate about asking questions and did not know what to do about trying to ask questions in the classroom. Other related problems included a lack of confidence in their ability to organize their thoughts and say something succinctly and in correct English in front of a class; problems with asking a long question; and inability to ask a question because of being busy taking notes.

This study confirmed a previous research finding (Holes, 1972; & Van Naerssen, 1984) and concluded that Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University had a problem asking questions in the classroom.

Finding # 12: Answering Questions in English in the Classroom.

Students interviewed perceived that they had problems answering questions or elaborating their answers in the classroom. Observation data indicated that respondents were comfortable answering questions only when they were directly solicited by the professor. Without direct solicitation respondents were mostly silent when the professor sought an answer from the class.

Foreign students' problems answering questions in English in the classroom were not directly examined in previous studies. However, this study concluded that the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University did not feel comfortable answering questions without the direct solicitation from the professor.

Finding # 13: Understanding Answers and Comments Given by Native English Speakers to Questions in the Classroom.

Quantitative Results:

More than sixty-three percent of the 101 respondents reported they had a problem with understanding answers and comments given by native English speakers to questions in the classroom. Of this total, 49.9% reported this was a very minor problem and 13.5% reported this was a serious problem.

A high degree of association was discovered between the problem of understanding answers and comments given by native English speakers to questions in the classroom and a respondent's speaking of English at home. A higher percentage of respondents (77.6%) in whose homes English was not spoken reported having problems than respondents (49.9%) in whose homes English was spoken:

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101) = 11.22, p < .05$$

Qualitative Results:

One student stated that he was unable to understand those American students who he thought "speak really fast and they have different accent." He added, "Some of them speak in a low voice and I can't understand them because I can't hear them." Another student found that examples used by Americans in their answers and comments were hard to understand. She said, "... sometimes American students speak outside the topic or they talk about things or give examples about which I don't know anything...." Another student found American students' comments hard to understand because they [the comments] were "long and ... include ... some examples that happen in America."

The problems described here are not meant to cover all the problems encountered by the students. These, however, appeared to bee the most important ones in the judgment of the researcher.

In conclusion, the present study corroborated the finding of previous research (Edwards, 1978) and concluded that the Indonesian and Malaysian students in Indiana University had a problem understanding answers and comments given by native speakers.

Finding # 14: Participating in Whole-class Discussions in English.

Quantitative Results:

More than seventy-nine percent of the respondents reported they had a problem with participation with class discussions in English. Of this total, 44.5% reported this was a very minor problem and 34.7% reported this was a serious problem. 71.3% of the respondents reported they had a problem with participation in small-group discussions in English. Of this total, 45.6% reported this was a very minor problem and 25.7% reported this was a serious problem.

A high degree of association was found between the problem of class discussions in English and country of origin. A higher percentage (82.5%) of the Malaysian respondents reported having problem than the Indonesian respondents (75.0%):

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101) = 7.86, p < .05$$

Second, a high degree of association was discovered between the problem of participating in whole class discussions in English and respondents' academic level. A higher percentage of undergraduate students (85.1%) reported having problems than did the graduate students (67.6%):

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101) = 9.51, p < .05$$

Third, a high degree of association was found between the problem of participating in whole class discussions in English and residing in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S. A higher percentage of respondents (84.5%) who had not resided in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S. reported having problems than respondents (62.5%) who had resided in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S.:

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101) = 8.94, p < .05$$

Finally, there was a significant difference between the mean scores of the Malaysian and Indonesian nationality groups in terms of the problems of participating in whole class discussions in English. In other words, the mean score for the Malaysian nationality group ($M = 2.3860$) was significantly higher than the mean score for the Indonesian nationality group ($M = 2.0227$), $t(99) = 2.09$, $p < .05$.

Qualitative Results:

Students elaborated on the various aspects of their problems with participation in academic discussions in English. Two types of academic discussions were considered -- whole-class and small-group discussions. Different students pointed out different aspects of the problem. The overall impressions gathered through interviews are summed up below.

Discussions in the classroom went fast and participants (students and professors) quickly made their comments or statements. An Indonesian or Malaysian student procrastinated about saying something, not being sure as to when to make an input. By the time he/she gathered strength to say something, the professor closed the discussion. The time allocated for the discussion was not perceived to be enough for him/her. One student described the problem in the following way, "... sometimes the time isn't enough and still I try to speak but don't know whether or not he [the professor] understands me. Sometimes I can do that but not always." Another student said, "I mean I can take my time in a small-group discussion. But in the whole class discussion, it's a problem. I may need 5 minutes to make myself clear, but it's not possible to take that much time to elaborate my point."

Another student stated that it was hard for him to say something in a discussion without the direct invitation from the professor to comment on a specific point. Another student reported that she had a negative feeling toward her own contribution to a discussion. She stated, "I've the feeling that if I talk ... people will not understand me and I'll interrupt negatively and spoil the whole discussion. I tend to avoid participating and keep quiet."

Another female student from Indonesia perceived that this problem was a serious one and she desperately tried to overcome it. She described her difficulty of participation in class discussions in the following statement, "Even if 50% of the grade for a course depends on this, still I would have this problem ... I remind myself before the class that I must say something.... they do take out points ... I do read and do my homework. It's just that I can't speak in class." She believed that she could have received better grades if she participated in class.

Finally, lacking the right words and expressions was perhaps a common problem for the students.

The present study supported previous research findings (Sharma, 1971; Jordan, 1977; & Rogers, 1977) and concluded that Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University had problems with participation in whole-class discussions in English.

Finding # 15: Participating in Group Discussions in English.

More than seventy-one percent of the 100 respondents reported that they had problems participating in group discussions in English. Of this total, 45.6% reported this was a very minor problem and 25.7% reported this was a serious problem.

The present study supported previous research findings (Rogers, 1977; and Jordan, 1977) and concluded that a great majority of the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University had problems participating in group discussions in English.

Finding # 16: Giving Speeches/Oral Reports in English.

Quantitative Results:

More than eighty percent of the respondents reported they had a problem giving oral presentations in English. Of this total, 45.5% reported this was a very minor problem and 34.7% reported this was a serious problem.

Qualitative Results:

The students who had an opportunity to give oral presentations in the classroom admitted to having a lack of confidence in their ability to speak and a sense of nervousness in giving presentations. One of them stated, "The problem is that I don't have self-confidence about my own ability to speak in English [in the classroom]. When I speak in front of the class, I can't say everything I want to say." Another student said that her speech was 'dull.' Another student said, "I don't feel confident about my own ability to present. I mean there are some points that I need to clarify because they conflict with one another. I'm not comfortable because I wasn't well prepared."

Associated with this lack of self-confidence about oral presentation was one's feeling of nervousness. Because of this nervousness, one was unable to say everything one intended to say in front of a class. One student put it, "I'm just scared, I'm just nervous, and I can't overcome it." She went on to say, "Well, I go through it, but sometimes I don't know whether what I say makes sense or not." Another student stated that she was overly conscious about her inability to speak English in public and that she was likely to make errors in pronunciation as well as in her choice of words and expressions. She explained this problem in the following words, "Such a consciousness makes me nervous. As a result, my speech gets disorganized, I begin to stammer, I lose control of my thoughts and ideas ... my speech is not clear."

The other major theme that emerged from the interview data was the problem of answering a question or elaborating an answer after giving oral presentations. For example, one interview respondent stated, "I've the problem, especially, answering questions after I finish the presentation."

A few other problems emerged from the interview data. For example, one of the interview students stated that she was unable to make sense of what American students said in response to her presentation. She elaborated this problem in the following terms, "I can't make sense of what they say. I've to ask [them] again to repeat the question. Or, sometimes if I don't understand the question but I know the answer, I still speak. But sometimes they don't understand what I say." Another student expressed her difficulty associated with inexperience of using an overhead projector during an oral presentation, "I didn't practice on how to use that and then how to -- you know -- to present and how to see my notes under the light. And it happened -- really funny -- because -- you know -- I put the transparencies in the wrong way --the wrong side and then I couldn't see my notes because the light from the overhead so -- you know -- projecting to my eyes. Maybe I'm not tall enough for the machine. That added to my nervousness."

The present study supported previous research (Sharma, 1971) and concluded that Indonesian and Malaysian students had problems giving oral presentations in English in the classroom.

Finding # 17: Hand-raising, Making Eye Contact, Smiling, etc., in Classroom Communication.

Quantitative Results:

More than sixty-six percent of the respondents reported they had problems with non-verbal communication in the classroom. Of this total, 43.5% reported this was a very minor problem and 22.8% reported this was a serious problem.

Qualitative Results:

Qualitative results indicated that respondents (1) did not feel comfortable raising their hands to ask a question or to say something in the classroom, and (2) expressed inability to participate in laughing and smiling in the classroom.

For one student it was difficult to give up the old habit of classroom communication. She stated, "I'm still in the same habit of classroom behavior as I used to have in Indonesia. For example, when I need to go to the bathroom, I ask the professor for permission to leave the classroom. The professor responds, '... you don't need to ask my permission. You just go because you're in America. I know that that's your custom [to ask the teacher's permission to leave the classroom] but you don't need to do that here." Another student pointed out her inability to understand Americans when they communicate through jokes and humor. She stated, "I've problem because usually the professor cuts a joke and I don't always understand and then all of the students laugh. I don't understand why they laugh."

Another student expressed that she felt uncomfortable about raising her hand as a signal to communicate because of not being sure about his own understanding of a point in the discussion. Another student reported that she felt uncomfortable about raising her hand to signal her desire to communicate, "... raising hand, to me, is like that particular situation ... kind of committing myself to say something. And that feeling is not nice." Another student reported that she was not sure as to whether or not some forms of classroom behavior involving non-verbal communication that were appropriate for American students would also be appropriate for foreign students. She stated that she was not yet used to the various patterns or forms of non-verbal communication in the classroom. Both of these elements of her problems are evident in the following statement, "I think about doing like Americans. I know that this is ok for Americans and so I'll do that. But it takes time to learn what American students do. I haven't seen enough patterns or examples that I could follow in my own [non-verbal] communication."

The present study supported previous research (Rogers, 1977: & Van Naerssen, 1984) and concluded: the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University had a problem with non-verbal communication in the classroom.

Finding # 18: Talking with an American Instructor in the Classroom.

Quantitative Results:

More than sixty-five percent of the respondents reported having problems talking with American professors in the classroom. Of this total, 42.5% reported this was a very minor problem and 22.8% reported this was a serious problem.

A high degree of association was found between the problem of talking with American professors in the classroom and the academic level of students. A higher percentage of undergraduate students (74.7%) reported having problems than graduate students (47.1%):

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101) = 7.89, p < .05$$

Qualitative Results:

Students interviewed reported that they usually did not talk with the professor in the classroom (either before or after the lecture). They gave various reasons for this inability or failure to communicate with the professor. The most predominant one was that they were unable to quickly seize an opportunity to talk with the professor. Students did not have enough time to explain something to the professor or ask a question. They were also concerned that if they had to repeat a question or wait for elaboration of an answer from the professor, others in the class would not have a chance to take their turns to talk. One student summed it up in the following terms, "... I think that in the classroom, you've only a few minutes. If you haven't understood the question, you can't ask to elaborate. So I prefer to talk to him in the office."

This study concluded that a great majority of the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University had a problem communicating with American instructors in the classroom.

Finding # 19: Reading Textbooks in English.

Quantitative Results:

More than fifty-two percent of the respondents reported they had a problem with reading textbooks in English. Of this total, 44.6% reported this was a very minor problem and 7.9% reported this was a serious problem.

A high degree of association was discovered between the problem of reading textbooks in English and length of stay in the U.S. A higher percentage of respondents (68.4%) whose length of stay in the U.S. was below the overall average reported having problems than respondents

(42.8%) whose length of stay in the U.S. was at or above the overall average:

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101) = 6.75, p < .05$$

Qualitative Results:

Slow reading speed was a universal complaint of the students interviewed. One student explained how slow reading speed affected her textbook reading performance, "Sometimes I've to look up the dictionary so many times that it slows down the speed of my reading. For example, as a result of [my] having to look up a dictionary so often, I end up reading only one page where I should have read three pages." Difficulty with words, especially those having multiple meanings, was another problem students encountered in reading their textbooks and materials. One student stated this problem, "It slows down my reading, especially, when I find a word that has multiple meanings. At first, I interpret it like: this sentence means this; but later when I read more, I realize that was not the meaning (laughs). I go back to the previous page and re-read it in light of the second page." Another student explained how her lack of critical reading skills and strategies affected her ability to participate in class discussions. She was unable to analyze and interpret the information from the assigned reading materials in class discussions. She explained this in the following terms, "... in some of my classes, there's a whole lot of reading to do and I get through the readings. But I can't analyze and interpret the text [information] in the class. And I can't participate in the class. Sometimes I want to but I don't have anything to say [although I read the assigned materials]." Delaying reading till the last moment was a habit or problem admitted by one student, "Maybe it's a lack of discipline. Usually, I don't do my readings until the very last minute, so I just [have to] rush through it."

Other textbook reading problems commonly encountered by the students included (1) overwhelming quantities of assigned reading materials; (2) bottom-up reading or having to read every word or sentence in a text and the same text several times in order to grasp its meaning; and (3) inability to identify the topic sentence in a paragraph.

The present study confirmed previous research findings (Holes, 1972; and Jordan, 1977) and concluded that the Indonesian and Malaysian students studying at Indiana University had problems of reading textbooks in English.

Finding # 20: Performing Large Quantities of Reading in English within a Short Period of Time for any Given Curse.

Quantitative Results:

More than seventy-two percent of the 101 respondents reported having a problem performing large quantities of reading in English. Of this total, 44.6% reported this was a very minor problem and 27.7% reported this was a serious problem.

Qualitative Results:

In performing large quantities of reading, the respondents expressed three major problems. First, they were unable to finish reading on time because of slow speed of reading, or having to write a summary or take notes. One student said, "I spend a lot of time to make-- what you call it? Small notes! I realize that it takes a lot of time to write a summary or take notes.... To be honest, sometimes I don't have the time to read all the materials. I'm unable to read all of them." Second, retention of information from the large quantities of materials read was found to be difficult by the students. Finally, students had to delay the reading of some materials because of the large quantities of materials assigned to them and their inability to read quickly.

Jensen (1986, p. 108 of the Savignon book) stated that, for ESL readers who are academically oriented and taking university courses through English, it is important to stress the amount of reading that may be required of them -- up to a book a week or more -- so that they understand the importance of reading quickly and efficiently.

This study supported Jensen's suggestion (1986) and concluded that the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University had problems reading large quantities of printed materials on time.

Finding # 21: Understanding Written Requirements for a Course.

More than forty-nine percent of the 100 respondents reported that they had problems understanding written requirements for a course. Of this total, 42.6% reported this was a very minor problem and 6.9% reported this was a serious problem.

None of the key studies cited in the review of literature examined this problem of foreign students. However, the present study concluded that nearly 50% of the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University had problems understanding written requirements for a course.

Finding # 22: Having an Adequate English Vocabulary to Understand Textbooks in a Course.

Quantitative Results:

More than sixty-three percent of the respondents reported they had problems with English vocabulary for reading textbooks. Of this total, 49.5% reported this was a very minor problem and 13.9% reported this was a serious problem.

A high degree of association was found between the problem of English vocabulary for reading textbooks in a course and residing in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S. A higher percentage of respondents (70.1%) who had not resided in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S. reported having problems than respondents (41.7%) who had resided in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S.:

$$\chi^{\checkmark}(3, N = 101) = 7.1, p < .05$$

A high degree of association was also found between the problem of English vocabulary for reading textbooks in a course and length of stay in the U.S. A higher percentage of respondents (81.6%) whose length of stay in the U.S. was below the overall average reported having problem than respondents (52.4%) whose length of stay in the U.S. was at or above the overall average:

$$\chi^{\checkmark}(3, N = 101) = 9.28, p < .05$$

Qualitative Results:

Questionnaire comments indicated that respondents had, in addition to their general problem of vocabulary for reading textbooks in English, a special problem with subject-related terminology and English words with multiple meanings.

This study supported previous research (Holes, 1972) and concluded that the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University had problems with English vocabulary for reading academic textbooks and materials.

Finding # 23: Comprehending English Words with Multiple Meanings.

More than seventy-two percent of the 100 respondents reported that they had problems comprehending English words with multiple meanings. Of this total, 50.5% reported this was a very minor problem and 21.8% reported this was a serious problem.

None of the key studies cited in the review of literature examined this problem. However, the present study concluded that a great majority of the Indonesian and Malaysian students encountered problems comprehending English words with multiple meanings.

Finding # 24: Employing Efficient Study Skills.

Quantitative Results:

More than sixty-nine percent of the respondents reported they had a problem with study skills in general. Of this total, 44.5% reported this was a very minor problem and 24.8% reported this was a serious problem. 65.3% of the respondents reported they had particular problems organizing and synthesizing information from multiple sources.

Qualitative Results:

Slow speed of taking notes from lectures appeared to be a predominant problem of students. One student explained this in the following words, "Even if I know the whole context in the speech [lecture], still I've a problem because of my slow speed of taking notes. It's like if he has gone two miles, I've gone one mile only." She added, "... the problem is always ... I'm always behind." The following statement further explains her problem with taking notes from lectures, "It depends on how clearly the professor is speaking. If he's speaking very clearly and I understand, I can write in my own words in brief and quickly. If the topic is not familiar to me, I try to write down all that he says because I don't understand and try to record every word so I can read it later and make sense of it." Another student stated that she encountered the following problem in taking lecture notes, "I've problems if the professor is standing too far, then I don't have time to think what he's saying, and so I try to get every word he says, and that is very difficult." When asked why that was difficult, she responded, "I've blanks in my notes."

Understanding the shift from one topic to the other within a lecture was a problem encountered by one student. He stated, "Sometimes I've a problem figuring out whether or not he [the professor] is still talking about the same topic or talking about a new topic. It takes me a while to find that out.... In my mind I think that the topic hasn't changed .... But when I look around, I find that everyone is writing! Then I realize that the professor has changed the topic." Another student stated that he missed important points in the lecture because of the professor's fast speed of speaking. He explained the problem in the following terms, "... if I wrote the notes, the notes don't make sense to me because I left out important terms or information. So when I go over the notes, I've difficulty understanding what I wrote."

Other related study skills problems of students included (1) not following any systematic note-taking technique such as the Cornell System; (2) not doing any systematic time management for study purposes; and (3) not being aware of, or sensitive to, the importance of organizing and synthesizing information before writing a paper or taking an examination.

The present study confirmed the previous research (Weir, 1982) and concluded that the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University had study skills problems.

Finding # 25: Organizing and Synthesizing Information for a Course.

More than sixty-five percent of the 100 respondents reported that they had problems organizing and synthesizing information for a course. Of this total, 49.5% reported this was a very minor problem and 15.8% reported this was a serious problem.

None of the key studies cited in the review of literature examined this problem. However, the present study concluded that a majority of the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University encountered problems organizing and synthesizing information for a course.

Finding # 26: Writing research/term papers in English.

Quantitative Results:

More than eighty percent of the 101 respondents reported having problems writing term papers in English. Of this total, 48.5% reported this was a very minor problem and 31.7% reported this was a serious problem.

A high degree of association was found between the problem of writing research papers in English and length of stay in the U.S. A higher percentage of respondents (94.7%) whose length of stay in the U.S. was below the overall average reported having problems than respondents (71.5%) whose length of stay in the U.S. was at or above the overall average:

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101) = 20.97, p < .05$$

This study concluded that Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University had problems writing term papers in English.

Finding # 27: Writing Academic English.

Quantitative Results:

More than seventy-seven percent of the 100 respondents reported having problems writing academic English, e.g., writing short reports, individual or joint projects or any course-related assignments in English. Of this total, 53.4% reported this was a very minor problem and 23.8% reported this was a serious problem.

A high degree of association was found between the problem of writing short reports, projects and class assignments in English and respondents' academic disciplines or fields of study. A higher percentage of respondents in the sciences (95.7%) reported having problems than respondents in the humanities (71.4%), social sciences (62.6%) and professional disciplines (74.5%):

$$\chi^2(6, N = 101) = 17.54, p < .05$$

A high degree of association was also discovered between the problem of writing short reports, projects and class assignments and length of stay in the U.S. A higher percentage of respondents (94.8%) whose length of stay in the U.S. was below the overall average reported having problems than respondents (66.7%) whose length of stay in the U.S. was at or above the overall average:

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101) = 20.27, p < .05$$

Qualitative Results:

Students reported innumerable problems related to their writing in general and to academic writing in particular. Only a few of these problems that appeared to be major are described here.

How to begin writing a paper was such a predominant problem. One student described his problem in the following words, "My problem is always how to begin. That's always the problem. I always find it difficult to begin writing a paper. But once I've begun it, I can go on and finish it." Associated with this problem of how to begin writing is students' procrastination. One student explained his problem of procrastination in the following terms, "My biggest problem is how to start -- you know-- I don't know if I have been able to overcome it. I still have the problem -- you know -- I wait and wait -- there comes a time when you can't wait any longer.... Suddenly, I just have to sit down and write. When I'm desperate ... maybe in the last four days [of the semester]." Another student said the following to express his sense of procrastination about writing, "I really don't know how to start ... I usually procrastinate so I can produce a better paper."

Another predominant writing-related problem that emerged from the qualitative data is the students' feeling of frustration for having to take a long time to complete a writing task. This became evident from the following statement of one of the Indonesian students interviewed, "I think I've more problem in writing than in any other aspects of academic communication because I'm not good at writing even in my native language. So when I write, I usually take a long time. It makes me nervous and so that's why I don't like writing because ... it's really frustrating." She further stated, "... I need really long time to make a good and clear paper.

Maybe I still have big problem organizing. Every time I look at it, I find that it needs some revision[s].... Another week, I'll see it again."

Another predominant theme that emerged from the qualitative data is the students' lack of appropriate English words and expressions for writing academic English. One student stated, "... I always have difficulty to -- to -- I cannot find the word -- to work on a -- ah -- like an essay test. The time is limited and I don't have the freedom to look up a dictionary ... Sometimes I know the answer but can't find a word or expression in English. It makes me upset because I know what the professor wants to know but I cannot find the English word. So sometimes I don't get very good grades. I would get better grades if I knew the word or words."

Interference from the native language was one of the problems of writing in English as experienced by these students. The two kinds of native language interference that appeared to be predominant are described here -- (a) sentence pattern and (b) tenses. One Indonesian student stated that because of the influence from her native language, she wrote long sentences in English. She explained it thus, "It [sentence] becomes very long. In English, you don't use such long sentences. For example ... one usually writes another sentence to use the word therefore. But in Bahasa Indonesia, we express it within one sentence [combine two sentences into one]. You don't have to break down a long sentence into two ... This is just one example I can give you ... the way I express things is just like that. The problem I've in writing sentences in English is just like that ... because it's hard though to think in Bahasa Indonesia first and then to try to translate it into English...." She perceived that in her mind, at the subconscious level, there is already a sentence pattern and when she starts writing in English it used to surface. She further added, "There was nothing to do with memorizing. Somehow it just goes there [in my head].... When I write [in English], I'm not realizing that there's a [an existing] pattern inside." A Malaysian student acknowledged similar interference from the native language in writing English. She also expressed that she had difficulty getting rid of the custom of writing long sentences in her native language. For her, "There is already a sentence pattern ... already established." She added, "It's not because I want to use it. It's there. So when I write an English sentence it's like the way I write in Bahasa Malaysia." Students acknowledged that writing long sentences in English made it hard for the American professor to understand the message. This was explained by one student in the following statement, "Usually, I write long sentences ... hard for the American professor to understand. Maybe, sometimes I've two subjects or two verbs in one sentence in a way that [they] are understood only by me because I'm mixing my own language pattern. It's not understood [by American professor] in English."

She added, "My sentences sometimes don't express what I really mean. That's my main problem."

The second type of native language interference involved the use of tenses in English. Unlike English, Bahasa Indonesia/Malaysia (both having the same roots) has only present tense, no past and future tenses. When a speaker/writer has to indicate the time of action of a verb, the verb form does not change. To indicate the past or future of the action of a verb, the speaker/writer merely adds a special word to indicate the time of action. One Indonesian student explained in the following terms, "The Indonesian word for *to eat* is *makan*. If I said *kamarin saya makan*, it [literally] means *yesterday I eat* to mean *I ate yesterday*. If I said *besok saya makan*, it means *tomorrow I eat* too mean *I shall eat tomorrow*. So -- you see -- we don't use any past or future form of a verb. We use only one form but add a separate word to indicate the time of action of a verb.... The verb is always in the present tense...." This lack of change in the form of a verb leads to some difficulty when Indonesian and Malaysian students write English. They need and take longer time completing a writing task in

English because they have to look up an English dictionary or book of verbs about the correct tense of a verb. Students also had problems using the correct singular/plural form. One student stated, "I always have to look up an English grammar book or a dictionary to find the plural forms of English nouns. It takes a lot of my time. As a result, my writing [in English] is slow." Other native language interference included use of adjectives and articles. Students' other writing problems in English were related to English vocabulary, American spelling, narrowing down a topic, providing adequate details in support of a thesis and lack of coherence.

The present study supported previous research (Sen, 1970; Holes, 1972; and Jordan, 1977) and concluded that the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University had problems writing academic English. Supporting previous research (Arani, 1985) it also concluded that the Indonesian and Malaysian students had problems with English grammar including tenses, number, articles, and parts of speech.

Finding # 28: Paraphrasing in English.

Quantitative Results:

More than seventy-five percent of the 101 respondents reported they had a problem with paraphrasing in English. Of this total, 48.5% reported this was a very minor problem and 26.7% reported this was a serious problem.

A high degree of association was found between the problem of paraphrasing in English and the age level of respondents. A higher percentage of respondents (82.2%) who were 25 years old or younger reported having problems paraphrasing in English than did respondents (57.1%) who were 26 years old or older:

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101) = 13.69, p < .05$$

A high degree of association was also discovered between the problem of paraphrasing in English and respondents' marital status. A higher percentage of the single students (79.5%) reported having problems paraphrasing in English than did the married students (60.9%):

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101) = 11.08, p < .05$$

Qualitative Results:

The interview data indicated that students had no clear understanding of how to write a paraphrase in English. This theme can be substantiated by the following examples. One student stated, "I take the same idea from the author and use it in my own words. I use more simple words. But I don't have any specific method of paraphrasing." He added, "If I find that my paraphrased text is too short, I quote statements from the original text." In response to the researcher's question as to how long the paraphrased text of a one-page original text would be, one student stated that her paraphrased text would be "Less than one page. Always less than the original text." Another student said, "Usually, my text is shorter -- about half of the original text." According to another student, the length of a paraphrased text could also be one-tenth or one-fifth of the original text. She added, "Sometimes I've problem paraphrasing. It depends on my understanding of the text. Because if I really understand the text, understand the words, am really clear about the idea in the text, it's better. I usually rephrase it; it becomes longer sentences. So I break down into small sentences, into shorter sentences.... I just try to forget those and grasp the idea and write my own and compare it with the original. Mine is longer."

Also, students interviewed did not know the distinction between a paraphrase and a summary. For example, one of them stated, "I've problem differentiating between a paraphrase and a summary. They get mixed up." He added, "... sometimes when a professor asks me to summarize a text, I end up paraphrasing." In short, what students mostly practiced about paraphrasing came close to writing a crude form of summary.

This study concluded that students reported having problems paraphrasing a text in English.

Finding # 29: Summarizing in English.

The interview data indicated that students had no clear understanding of the various types of summaries or of how to write a good summary in English. Also, respondents did not know the appropriate length for a summary. Finally, they had a problem determining what is and what is not a necessary and appropriate element to be included in a summary.

None of the key studies cited in the review of literature examined this problem. However, the present study concluded that the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University encountered problems writing a summary in English.

Finding # 30: Writing Quickly in English.

Quantitative Results:

More than seventy-two percent of the respondents indicated having problems writing quickly in English. Of this total, 47.5% reported this was a very minor problem and 24.8% reported this was a serious problem.

A high degree of association was discovered between the problem of writing quickly in English and use of English as the medium of instruction in their home country. A higher percentage of the respondents (77.7%) who had not used English as the medium of instruction in their home country reported having problems than did respondents (61.7%) who had used English as the medium of instruction in their home country:

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101) = 7.79, p < .05$$

A high degree of association was also found between the problem of writing quickly in English and length of stay in the U.S. A higher percentage of respondents (92.2%) whose length of stay in the U.S. was below the overall average reported having problems than did respondents (60.3%) whose length of stay in the U.S. was at or above the overall average:

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101) = 12.89, p < .05$$

Qualitative Results:

Students reported experiencing anxiety when they had to write quickly. One of them stated, "I've trouble writing very fast. If it's going to be graded ... I'm critical about myself and about my writing. Maybe, that's one thing I shouldn't do. It somehow gives me anxiety that will obstruct my ability to write." She added, "I usually don't write very well and I don't think it's fair too. I know most of the time I cannot perform very well in writing ... because I'm the kind of a person -- if you put pressure of grade or something ... it's really a problem. I don't know why. It really bothers me -- my way of doing things." Students also reported their problem with finding the sources/materials for writing and inability to finish writing on time and problem when they had to perform writing tasks quickly.

The present study supported previous research (Jordan, 1977; & Larter, 1962) and concluded that Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University had difficulty writing quickly in English.

Finding # 31: Writing Concisely in English.

Quantitative Results:

More than eighty-three percent of the respondents reported having a problem with writing concisely in English. Of them, 49.5% had a very minor problem and 33.7% had a serious problem.

A high degree of association was discovered between the problem of writing concisely in English and use of English as the medium of instruction in home country. A higher percentage of the respondents (89.6%) who had not used English as the medium of instruction reported having problems than did respondents (70.6%) who had used English as the medium of instruction in their home country:

$$\chi^{\checkmark}(3, N = 101) = 7.95, p < .05$$

Qualitative Results:

Results of interview data indicated how students' problems with writing concisely were mostly related to their problems with English vocabulary. One student stated, "My problem is finding the words and expressions for expressing my ideas concisely." He added, "I cannot find the exact words or phrases that will represent the same long message in a brief form. I search for powerful words and phrases that will carry the message in brief but can't find them.... So I would say my problem is still with vocabulary."

This study confirmed Jordan's finding (1977) and concluded that Indonesian and Malaysian respondents had difficulty writing concisely in English.

Finding # 32: Meeting Deadlines for Written Assignments.

More than fifty-two percent of the respondents reported that they had problems meeting deadlines for written assignments. Of this total, 38.6% reported this was a very minor problem and 13.9% reported this was a serious problem.

None of the key studies cited in the review of literature examined this problem. However, the present study concluded that more than 50% of the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University encountered problems meeting deadlines for written assignments.

Finding # 33: Having an Adequate English Vocabulary for Academic Writing.

Quantitative Results:

More than seventy-three percent of the respondents reported having problems with English vocabulary for academic writing. Of this total, 49.5% reported this was a very minor problem and 23.8% reported this was a serious problem.

A high degree of association was found between the problem of vocabulary for writing in English and use of English as the medium of instruction in home country. A higher percentage of the respondents (83.3%) who had not used English as the medium of instruction in their home country reported having problems than the respondents (55.9%) who had used English as the medium of instruction in their home country:

$$\chi^{2}(3, N = 101) = 10.34, p < .05$$

Qualitative Results:

Inadequate English vocabulary seemed to have affected students' academic writing in general.

As stated earlier, one student indicated that, for lack of an effective vocabulary, he had problems writing concisely in English. He added, "I cannot find the exact words or phrases that will represent the same long message in a brief form. I search for powerful words and phrases that will carry the message in brief but can't find them in my mind. So I would say my problem is still with vocabulary." Another student found that she lacked high level vocabulary in English, as she stated, "You know -- if I want to write -- my problem ... higher quality writing -- I mean writing that contains hard vocabulary. I always want to do that but I have never been successful to really produce it." Since they were mostly trained in the Audiolingual method and acquired English vocabulary through passive reading, students sometimes did not know when and how to use/apply certain English words. One of them stated, "There are a lot of words that I [learned but] never used before. But after I met people [here] and have [had] to talk to them, I found that I had to speak and that I realize that I've to use this word instead of the other word which isn't appropriate in this context." In addition, students reported having a limited English vocabulary.

This study concluded that Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University had problems with English vocabulary for academic writing in general.

Finding # 34: Feeling Inferior to Americans.

Related to the students' English language-based problems was their problem of feeling inferior to Americans.

Students perceived that the United States was a superior country, more advanced, having superior and harder educational standards, and that it might have been hard for them to academically succeed in an American university. They had poor self-images and felt inferior to Americans because of their origins in developing countries where educational standards were perceived to be low. One student stated, "I think before we came to the U.S., we always had a feeling of inferiority ... It's a kind of feeling that every student goes through before going abroad." She added, "Maybe that's our psychological problem. I'm sure that I'm not the only one who has that feeling of inferiority [complex]."

Perhaps such a lack of a good self-image created a sense of uncertainty and doubt in the students' minds as to how American professors, students and the general public would view them. Students perceived that American professors and students might look down upon them because of their origins in developing countries or because of their low academic ability, including low ability to communicate in English. Perceiving that Americans might have a poor impression of their ability to speak English, one student wrote the following questionnaire comment, "Some of them, it seems, think that we as foreigners can't speak English as fluently as they do and they try to avoid having any conversation." Another student commented, "... some people ... don't think that you're smart when you can't express yourself in English." Yet another student wrote, "Most Americans expect me to speak beginner's English and most of the time they're surprised that I can speak English fluently and with minimal accent. I perceive that since I'm not a white person, I'm expected to be inferior in a lot of ways."

In short, the Indonesian and Malaysian students felt uncertain about American attitude toward them. This sense of uncertainty is characterized by a pervasive feeling of inferiority complex.

Relationships/Associations between Students' Personal and Academic Characteristics and Overall Language Problems

Hypothesis # 1 sought to determine the relationships/associations between students' personal and academic characteristics and specific as well as overall language problems. The results of the chi-square tests which indicated significant relationships/associations between students' personal and academic characteristics and specific language problems have been described above. The following section describes the results of chi-square tests which indicated significant relationships or associations between students' personal and academic characteristics and overall language problems.

To determine the relationships/associations between students' personal and academic characteristics and the overall language problems, 12 chi-square tests of association (based on the twelve independent variables) were run on SPSS. It was found that only independent variable # 12 (length of stay in the U.S.) had a significant relationship/association with the overall language problems. The results of this chi-square test are described below.

Length of Stay in the U.S. and Overall Language Problems:

There was a significant relationship/association between students' length of stay in the U.S. and overall language problems. A significantly higher percentage of the students who had been in the U.S. for a period below the overall average length of stay (92.2%) reported having language problems than that of the students who had been in the U.S. for a period at or above the overall average length of stay (66.6%):

$\chi^{\checkmark}(3, N = 101) = 10.19108, p < .05.$

Summary of Results:

Based on the results of both quantitative and qualitative data, the following thirty-four problems have been identified as the major English language-based problems of the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University. In parentheses beside each problem identified, the percentage of respondents having the problem is also given. If 15% or more of the total respondents reported that they had problems of some kind, the percentage was considered significant. (1) writing concisely (83.2%); (2) writing term papers (80.2%); (3) giving oral presentations (80.2%); (4) participating in whole-class discussions (79.2%); (5) making one's thoughts and ideas clear to native speakers (79.2%); (6) fluency in English (77.2%); (7) academic writing (77.2%); (8) vocabulary for verbal communication (76.3%); (9) pronunciation (76.2%); (10) knowing what to say and how to say it in English (76.2%); (11) paraphrasing (75.2%); (12) vocabulary for academic writing (73.3%); (13) performing large quantities of reading (72.3%); (14) comprehending English words with multiple meanings (72.3%); (15) writing quickly (72.3%); (16) participating in small-group discussions (71.3%); (17) study skills (69.3%); (18) understanding American attitudes, customs and social circumstances (68.3%); (18) asking questions in the classroom (67.3%); (20) non-verbal communication in the classroom (66.3%); (21) communicating with the professor in the classroom (65.3%); (22) organizing and synthesizing information for a course (65.3%); (23) understanding answers and comments given by native speakers in the classroom (63.4%); (24) vocabulary for academic reading (63.4%); (25) understanding the tone of voice of an American speaker (62.3%); (26) conversation at an informal level (60.4%); (27) understanding American English (59.4%); (28) academic reading (52.5%); (29) meeting deadlines for written assignments (52.5%); (30) understanding written requirements for a course (49.5%); and (31) understanding classroom lectures (48.5%). The following three additional problem themes or areas emerged from the qualitative data: (1) answering questions in English in the classroom; (2) summarizing a text in English; and (3) feeling inferior to Americans.

The following are the areas in which a significant percentage (15% or more) of the respondents indicated that they had serious problems: (1) participating in academic discussions (34.7%); (2) giving oral presentations (34.7%); (3) writing concisely (33.7%); (4) writing term papers (31.7%); (5) performing large quantities of reading (27.7%); (6) paraphrasing (26.7%); (7) study skills (24.8%); (8) writing quickly (24.8%); (9) academic writing (23.8%); (10) vocabulary for academic writing (23.8%); (11) asking questions in the classroom (23.8%); (12) making one's thoughts and ideas clear to native speakers (22.8%); (13) communicating with the professor in the classroom (22.8%); (14) non-verbal communication in the classroom (22.8%); (15) vocabulary for verbal communication (22.8%); (16) fluency (20.8%); and (17) pronunciation (19.8%).

Finally, the results of chi-square tests indicated significant relationships/associations between respondents' personal/academic characteristics (the 12 independent variables) and some specific language problems. The relationships are presented in chart A (see Appendix E). A check mark in a box in the chart means the variable has a significant relationship/association with the corresponding language problem. The results of chi-square tests also indicated a significant relationship between students' length of stay in the U.S. and their overall language problems. The relationship is presented in chart B (see Appendix F). A check mark in the "yes" column means that there is a significant relationship/association between students' length of stay in the U.S. and their overall language problems.

Discussion:

This chapter has identified thirty-four language areas in which significant percentages of the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University encountered problems. It has also identified seventeen language areas in which significant percentages of the students encountered serious problems. It has, thus, answered question # 1 of the study: What are the major English language-based problems of the Indonesian and Malaysian students at a major American state university?

In addition, in testing hypothesis # 1, this chapter has identified the associations/relationships between students' personal and academic characteristics and language problems.

The findings in this chapter give rise to the question: Did the respondents in the study under-estimate their language problems? Walker (1978) pointed out that students' awareness of language inadequacy was often lacking and that there was a general tendency for students to over-estimate their own language ability. Jordan (1977) wrote: "... students' self-assessment ratings were examined and compared to the students' scores in the Chaplen Test. Overwhelmingly the results showed the students at the lower end of the scale in the test grossly over-estimated their language ability." The present study did not examine respondents' scores in a language test such as TOEFL. Therefore, it is not possible to conclude as to whether or not students in their self-reports grossly under-estimated their language problems.

However, based on the data gathered through the multiple sources, it is appropriate to suggest that students did not under-estimate their language problems. This suggestion is supported by the quantitative data which indicate that significantly high percentages of the students encountered not only [very minor to serious] problems in all thirty-one language areas listed in the questionnaire but also serious problems in seventeen of the areas. Also, the qualitative data provided further evidence of the extent of students' language problems.

Second, which one of the four macro-skills--listening, speaking, reading and writing, posed more difficulty or the most serious problems to the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University? Based on the data gathered in this study, it can be inferred that the difficulty of text and the large quantities of printed selections to be read and performing academic writing tasks in English under pressure of time perhaps posed greater difficulty than the other skills areas.

Conclusion:

Based on the evidence from the results of the quantitative and qualitative data, a few conclusions can be made.

First, significantly high percentages of the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University perceived to have had English language-based problems in a large number of areas. Significantly high percentages (15% or higher) of the students reported to have had serious problems in only seventeen of the thirty-one problem areas listed in the questionnaire.

Second, students' length of stay in the U.S. was found to have had significant relationships/associations with the highest number (11) of the specific language problems. It was also found to have had a significant relationship/association with the students' overall language problems.

Third, students participating in this study probably did not under-estimate their language problems.

Finally, it can be said that, as the students progressed through their courses, they made improvement in their ability in English. However, they perhaps made improvement more in reading and writing skills than in verbal communication skills. This was evident from the two case studies conducted. While students performed their reading and writing tasks in English and were perhaps successful in these two areas, their problems in verbal communication remained.

CHAPTER 6

ANSWERING QUESTION # 2 OF THE STUDY: DO THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE-BASED PROBLEMS OF THE INDONESIAN AND MALAYSIAN STUDENTS DIFFER IN TERMS OF PERSONAL AND ACADEMIC CHARACTERISTICS?

The intent of this chapter was to answer question # 2 of the study: Do the English language-based problems of the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University differ in terms of their personal and academic characteristics? The twelve personal and academic characteristics are: (1) country of origin; (2) age; (3) field of study; (4) gender; (5) marital status; (6) educational level; (7) use of English as a medium of instruction in the home country; (8) prior use of textbooks in English in the present field; (9) speaking English at home; (10) residence in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S.; (11) Length of time spent learning English; and (12) length of stay in the U.S.

To test hypothesis 4 (for variable 3 = field of study), a one-way ANOVA was used. To test hypotheses 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, and 13, t-test was used.

HYPOTHESIS 2: Difference in Language Problems in Terms of Country of Origin.

A t-test was used to test the difference between the means of the two nationality groups. Group 1 consisted of the Malaysian students and group 2 of the Indonesian students.

There was no significant difference between the overall language problems of the two nationality groups. The overall mean score for the Malaysian group (M = 1.9864) was not significantly higher than the overall mean score for the Indonesian group (M = 1.8366), t(99) = 1.42, p < .05.

Table: Difference between the Overall Language Problems of the Two Nationality Groups:

Group	Number of cases	Mean	t-value	d.f.	2-tail prob.
1	57	1.9864			
			1.42*	99	.159
2		44		1.8366	

*Not significant at the .05 level.

In contrast to previous research (Hill, 1966; Sharma, 1971; Win, 1971; and Mahdavi-Harsini, 1981), this study found that there was no significant difference between the Indonesian and Malaysian nationality groups of students in Indiana University in terms of their overall English language-based problems.

This lack of difference between the two nationality groups in terms of their overall means can be explained by the fact that most of the Indonesian students participating in this study had been in the U.S. longer than the Malaysian students. As will be shown later, the mean scores for the students who stayed in the U.S. for a period of time below the overall average were significantly higher than those who stayed in the U.S. for a period of time below the overall average. Longer stay in the U.S. may have helped alleviate some of the problems of the Indonesian students.

HYPOTHESIS 3: Difference between the Overall Language Problems of the Two Age Groups.

A t-test sought to determine if there was any significant difference between the overall language problems of the two age groups. Group 1 consisted of students who were 25 years old or younger. Group 2 consisted of students who were 26 years old or older.

There was no significant difference between the overall language problems of the two age groups. The mean score for students who were 25 years old or younger ($M = 1.9709$) was not significantly higher than the mean score for students who were 26 years old or older ($M = 1.7915$), $t(99) = 1.54$, $p < .05$.

Table: Difference between the Overall Language Problems of the Two Age Groups:

Group	Number of cases	Mean	t-value	d.f.	2-tail prob.
1	73	1.9709	1.54*	99	.128
2	28	1.7915			

*Not significant at the .05 level.

Although Moore (1987) considered age to be a significant factor in academic, social and personal problems, Sharma (1971) found that difference in age seemed to have little effect on the problems of foreign students. This study concurred with Sharma's study (1971) and concluded that there was no significant difference between the older and younger Indonesian and Malaysian students in terms of the severity of their English language-based problems.

In this study younger students were expected to encounter greater problems than older students. But in this case, most of the younger students were from Malaysia and had started learning English at an earlier age or grade level than did the Indonesian students.

HYPOTHESIS 4: Difference among the Overall Language Problems of the Student Groups Based on Academic Disciplines.

A one-way Analysis of Variance was conducted to determine if there was a significant difference among the overall language problems of the following four student groups based on academic disciplines: humanities (group 1); sciences (group 2); professional disciplines (group 3); and social sciences (group 4).

No significant difference was found among the overall language problems of the four student groups. The results of the one-way ANOVA indicated no significant difference among the mean scores of students from Humanities, Sciences, Professional Disciplines, and Social Sciences, $F(3, 97) = .3665$, $p < .05$.

Table: Difference among the Overall Language Problems of the Four Student Groups Based on Academic Disciplines:

Source of Variation	d.f.	Mean Squares	F-ratio	F prob.
Between Groups	3	.1046	.3665*	.7773
Within groups	97	.2853		
Total	100			

*Not significant at the .05 level.

Contrary to the findings of previous research (Sharma, 1971; and Weir, 1982), the present study concluded that there were no significant differences among students of (a) humanities, (b) sciences, (c) professional disciplines and (d) social sciences in terms of the severity of their English language-based problems.

HYPOTHESIS 5: Difference between the Overall Language Problems of the Male and Female Student Groups.

A t-test was used to determine the difference between the overall language problems of the male and female student groups. Group 1 consisted of the male students and group 2 of the female students.

No significant difference between the overall language problems of the male and female student groups was found. The mean score for the female respondents (M = 1.9711) was not significantly higher than the mean score for the male respondents (M = 1.8758), t(99) = .90, p < .05.

Table 5: Difference between the Overall Language Problems of the Male and Female Student Groups:

Group	Number of cases	Mean	t-value	d.f.	2-tail prob.
1	53	1.8758	-.90*	99	.369
2	48	1.9711			

*Not significant at the .05 level.

Although Hill (1966) found a significant difference between male and female foreign students in terms of their problems, Mahdavi-Harsini (1981) found that the perception of problems was not affected by the sex of the foreign students. The present study confirmed Mahdavi-Harsini's finding and concluded that there was no significant difference between male and female students in terms of their English language-based problems.

HYPOTHESIS 6: Difference between the Overall Language Problems of the Married and Single Student Groups.

A t-test was used to determine the difference between the married and single student groups. Group 1 consisted of the married students and group 2 of the single students.

No significant difference was found between the overall language problems of the married and single student groups. The mean score for the single students (M = 1.9479) was not significantly higher than the mean score for the married students (M = 1.8303), t(99) = .94, p < .05.

Table: Difference between the Overall Language Problems of the Married and Single Student groups:

Group	Number of cases	Mean	t-value	d.f.	2-tail prob.
1	23	1.8303	-.94*	99	.351
2	78	1.9479			

*Not significant at the .05 level.

Although Moore (1987) found that married students had fewer academic, social and personal problems than single students. Contrary to Moore's finding (1987), the present study concluded that there was no significant difference between married and single students in terms of their English language-based problems.

HYPOTHESIS 7: Difference between the Language Problems of the Graduate and Undergraduate Student Groups.

A t-test sought to determine if there was any significant difference between the overall language problems of the graduate and undergraduate student groups. Group 1 consisted the graduate students and group 2 of the undergraduate students.

There was a significant difference between the overall language problems of the graduate and undergraduate student groups. The mean score for the undergraduate respondents ($M = 1.9996$) was significantly higher than the mean score for the graduate respondents ($M = 1.7666$), $t(99) = 2.13$, $p < .05$.

Table: Difference between the Overall Language Problems of the graduate and undergraduate student groups:

Group	Number of cases	mean	t-value	d.f.	2-tail prob.
1	34	1.7666	-.213*	99	.036
2	67	1.9996			

*Significant at the .05 level

Moore (1987) found that graduate students had fewer academic problems than undergraduate students. The present study seemed to confirm Moore's finding (1987) and concluded that English language-based problems of undergraduate students were significantly more severe than those of graduate students.

HYPOTHESIS 8: Difference between the Overall Language Problems of the Two Groups Based on Previous use of English as the medium of instruction in the home country.

A t-test sought to discover if there was a significant difference between the overall language problems of the two student groups based on previous use of English as the medium of instruction in the home country. Group 1 consisted of students who had used English as the medium of instruction in the home country. Group 2 consisted of students who had not used English as the medium of instruction in the home country.

There was a significant difference between the overall language problems of students who had used English as the medium of instruction in the home country and of those who had not used English as the medium of instruction in the home country. The mean score for students who had not used English as the medium of instruction in the home country ($M = 2.0010$) was significantly higher than the mean score for students who had used English as medium of instruction in the home country ($M = 1.7638$), $t(99) = 2.17$, $p < .05$.

Table: Difference between the Overall Language Problems of the Two Student Groups Based on Use of English as the Medium of Instruction in the Home Country:

Group	Number of cases	Mean	t-value	d.f.	2-tail prob.
1	34	1.7638	-2.17*	99	.033
2	67	2.0010			

*Significant at the .05 level

Previous research (Sen, 1970) indicated a difference between two foreign student groups in terms of previous use of English as a medium of instruction in the home country. The present study confirmed this previous research finding and concluded that respondents who had not used English as a medium of instruction in their home country had significantly greater difficulties than those who had used English as a medium of instruction in their home country.

HYPOTHESIS 9: Difference between the Overall Language Problems of Two Student Groups Based on Previous Use of textbooks in English in the present field.

A t-test was used to determine the difference between the overall language problems of the two student groups based on previous use of textbooks in English in the present field. Group 1 consisted of students who had used textbooks in English for previous studies in the present field. Group 2 consisted of students who had not used textbooks in English for previous studies in the present field.

There was no significant difference between the overall language problems of the two student groups. The mean score for students who had used textbooks in English for previous studies in the present field (M = 1.9245) was not significantly higher than the mean score for students who had not used textbooks in English for previous studies in the present field (M = 1.9068), t(98) = .13, $p < .05$.

Table: Difference between the Overall Language Problems of the Two Student Groups Based on Use of textbooks in English for Previous Studies in the Present Field:

Group	Number of cases	Mean	t-value	d.f.	2-tail prob.
1	82	1.9245	.13*	98	.899
2	18	1.9068			

*Not significant at the .05 level.

Sharma (1971) found that previous use of English seemed to have little effect on the problems of foreign student groups attending universities in North Carolina. The present study seemed to concur with Sharma's (1971) finding and concluded that there was no significant difference between (a) respondents who had used textbooks in English in their present fields of study and (b) those who had not used textbooks in English in their present fields of study.

HYPOTHESIS 10: Difference between the Overall Language Problems of Two Student Groups Based on Speaking of English at home as a first or second language.

A t-test sought to determine the difference between the overall language problems of the two student groups based on speaking of English at home as a first or second language. Group 1 consisted of students who were used to speaking English at home as a first or second language. Group 2 consisted of students who were not used to speaking English at home as a first or second language.

There was no significant difference between the overall language problems of the two student groups. The mean score for students who were not used to speaking English at home (M = 1.9717) was not significantly higher than the mean score for students who were used to speaking English at home (M = 1.8735), t(99) = .93,

$p < .05$.

Table: Difference between the Overall Language Problems of the Two Student Groups Based on Speaking of English at Home:

Group	Number of cases	Mean	t-value	d.f.	2-tail prob.
1	52	1.8735	-.93*	99	.354
2	49	1.9717			

*Not significant at the .05 level

Previous studies that sought to identify foreign student groups' difference of language problems in terms of speaking English at home produced conflicting results. Whereas, Sen (1970) predicted a difference between the language problems of "foreign" and "Commonwealth" student groups, Sharma (1971) found no significant difference in foreign students' problems in terms of varied home backgrounds. The present study seemed to concur with Sharma's study (1971) and concluded that there was no significant difference between (a) respondents in whose homes English was spoken as a first or second language and (b) those in whose homes English was not spoken as a first or second language.

HYPOTHESIS 11: Difference between the Overall Language Problems of the Two Student Groups Based on Residence in an English-speaking Country before Beginning Studies in the U.S.

A t-test was used to determine if there was any significant difference between the overall language problems of two student groups based on residence in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S. Group 1 consisted of students who had resided in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S. Group 2 consisted of students who had not resided in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S.

There was a significant difference between the overall language problems of students who had resided and those who had not resided in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S. The mean score for students who had not resided in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S. ($M = 1.9950$) was significantly higher than the mean score for students who had resided in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S. ($M = 1.6842$), $t(99) = 2.58$, $p < .05$.

Table: Difference between the Overall Language Problems of Two Student Groups Based on Residence in an English-speaking Country before Beginning Studies in the U.S.:

Group	Number of	Mean	t-value	d.f.	2-tail prob.
1	24	1.6842	-2.58*	99	.011
2	77	1.9950			

*Significant at the .05 level

Davies (1965) suggested that there would be a difference in the English language-based problems of foreign students in terms of their residence in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S. The present study confirmed this suggestion and concluded that respondents who had not resided in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S. encountered significantly greater difficulties than those who had resided in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S.

HYPOTHESIS 12: Difference between the Overall Language Problems of Two Student Groups Based on Length of Learning English.

A t-test sought to determine the difference between the overall language problems of two student groups based on length of learning English. Group 1 consisted of students who had learned English for a period of time which was at or below the national average length of learning English. Group 2 consisted of students who had learned English for a period of time which was above the national average length of learning English.

There was no significant difference between the overall language problems of the two student groups. The mean score for students who had learned English for a period of time which was at or below the national average (M = 1.9587) was not significantly higher than the mean score for students who had learned English for a period of time which was above the national average (M = 1.8871), t(97) = .67, $p < .05$.

Table: Difference between the Overall Language Problems of the Two Student Groups Based on Length of Learning English:

Group	Number of cases	Mean	t-value	d.f.	2-tail prob.
1	53	1.9587	.67*	97	.503
2	46	1.8871			

*Not significant at the .05 level

In contrast with the suggestion from previous research (Sen, 1970), the present study found that there was no significant difference in the severity of the English language-based problems of (a) respondents who had learned English for a length of time which was at or below the national average and (b) those who had learned English for a length of time which was above the national average.

HYPOTHESIS 13: Difference between the Overall Language Problems of Two Student Groups Based on Length of Stay in the U.S.

A t-test was conducted to determine the difference between the overall language problems of the two student groups based on length of stay in the U.S. Group 1 consisted of students who had been in the U.S. for a period of time which was below the overall average length of stay in the U.S. Group 2 consisted of students who had been in the U.S. for a period of time which was at or above the overall average length of stay in the U.S.

There was a significant difference between the overall language problems of the two student groups. The mean score for students who had been in the U.S. for a period of time below the overall average length of stay (M = 2.15337) was significantly higher than the mean score for students who had been in the U.S. for a period of time at or above the overall average length of stay (M = 1.7809, t(99) = 3.63, $p < .05$.

Table: Difference between the Overall Language Problems of the Two Student Groups Based on Length of Stay in the U.S.:

Group	Number of cases	Mean	t-value	d.f	2-tail prob.
1	38	2.1537	3.63*	99	.000
2	63	1.7809			

*Significant at the .05 level

Contrary to the findings of previous research (Sharma, 1971; and Mahdavi-Harsini, 1981), the present study concluded that respondents who had stayed in the U.S. for a length of time which was below the overall average had significantly greater problems than those who had stayed in the U.S. for a length of time which was at or above the overall average ($t(99) = 3.63$, $p < .05$)).

The difference between the findings of previous studies and the present study is noteworthy. One explanation can be that the difference between the two averages of length of stay in the U.S. in this study is perhaps wider than that found in previous studies. If the difference between the two averages was not wide enough, a significant difference in the English language-based problems of the two groups cannot be expected. However, the width between the two averages in the previous studies is not known.

Are the problems mere initial problems or they remain problems? The finding that the English language-based problems are more severe at the initial stage than at a later stage leads the researcher to infer that stay in the U.S. helps improve one's ability in academic English better at a later stage than at the initial stage.

Summary of Results:

The present study found the following differences in the English language-based problems of Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University in terms of their personal and academic characteristics:

(1) The Indonesian and Malaysian undergraduate students had significantly greater English language-based problems than the graduate students.

(2) The Indonesian and Malaysian students who had not used English as the medium of instruction in the home country encountered significantly greater English language-based problems than those who had.

(3) The Indonesian and Malaysian students who had not resided in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S. had significantly greater English language-based problems than those who had.

(4) The Indonesian and Malaysian students who had been in the U.S. for a period of time below the overall average had significantly greater English language-

based problems than those who had been in the U.S. for a period of time at or above the overall average.

Discussion:

The purpose of this chapter was to answer question # 2 of the study: Do the English language-based problems of the Indonesian and Malaysian students at a major American state university differ in terms of the selected personal and academic characteristics?

This chapter has found that the overall English language-based problems of the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University differed significantly in terms of the following four independent variables: academic level; previous use of English as the medium of instruction; residence in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S.; and length of stay in the U.S. It has, thus, answered question # 2 of the study.

Conclusion:

This chapter has concluded that the overall English language-based problems of the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University significantly differed only in terms of their academic level; previous use of English as the medium of instruction; residence in an

English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S.; and length of stay in the U.S. The other personal and academic variables of the students did not make any significant difference in the overall language problems.

CHAPTER 7

ANSWERING QUESTION # 3 OF THE STUDY: WHAT ARE THE MAJOR CAUSES OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE-BASED PROBLEMS OF THE INDONESIAN AND MALAYSIAN STUDENTS?

The intent of this chapter is to answer question # 3 of the study: What are the major causes of the English language-based problems of the Indonesian and Malaysian students?

Based on the interview data, the following were identified as the major causes of the English language-based problems of the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana university:

1. Lack of Practice in Speaking English with the Native Speakers While in the U.S.:

While studying in the United States, respondents lived and socialized with their own ethnic groups and spoke their native language. This theme emerged from the interview responses from the students. Some representative responses are quoted here to illustrate this theme. One Malaysian student stated, "Because -- you know -- I've few chances of practicing English. The only place I can practice speaking English is the classroom. I live with other Malaysian students in an apartment.... so we rarely speak English. Also, my socialization is usually with other Malaysian students living in the same building. It's really rare that we speak English." One Indonesian student said, "I haven't had enough exposure to an environment in which I could practice speaking [pronouncing] words learned from books. Mostly, I associate with students who speak my native Bahasa Indonesia."

It can be inferred from these statements that the Indonesian and Malaysian students tended to have difficulty associating or communicating with native speakers outside the classroom or academic setting. As a result, they made slow progress in their speaking ability in English. Jordan and McKay (1973, cited in Weir, 1982: 95) noted that one of the biggest problems for overseas students in the United Kingdom was to find the opportunity to practice speaking English with native English speakers. Consequently, foreign students made slow progress with their spoken English.

The present study confirmed findings of previous research (Jordan and McKay, 1973) and concluded that slow progress in speaking ability in English of the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University was due to their lack of practice in speaking English with native speakers.

2. Lack of Practice in Speaking English in Classroom Learning in the Home Country:

The Indonesian and Malaysian students in this study did not have adequate opportunity to practice speaking English in classroom learning in their home countries. This is evident from the following comment of one Indonesian student, "The teacher always divided each class into three parts: (a) English grammar; (b) English reading; and (c) English conversation. There were 40 students in the class. Not everyone had a chance to speak. Before some students had their turns to speak, the class was over." Another Indonesian student stated, "In Indonesia, we learn English since first year in junior high school, but we never speak English in the classroom. We speak Bahasa Indonesia for classroom communication." A Malaysian student implied this theme when he stated, "Because here we have to speak English with the instructors but in Malaysia we didn't have to do that. We didn't use to speak English with the instructors there."

The present study supported previous research (Jordan, 1977; & Syananondh, 1983) and concluded that there was a lack of emphasis on the acquisition of speaking skills in previous English language training of the Indonesian and Malaysian students.

3. Learning English from Non-native Speakers of English:

The interview data indicated that students learned English from non-native speakers of English. One Malaysian student stated, "It was more communicative skills that we were taught by Malaysian teachers, not by native speakers, so we established our own way of speaking." An Indonesian student said, "I learned English words by reading them in printed text, without the opportunity of hearing how they're actually pronounced by native speakers. Most of my vocabulary is acquired through silent reading of English books."

Related to this cause was the fact that the Indonesian-born teachers of English were perhaps not well-trained. They were trained in English in Indonesian and Malaysian universities. The qualifications of an English teacher who was not trained in an English-speaking country of the West such as the U.K., USA, or Canada are questionable. The available literature on the status of English teachers in Indonesia raises similar concerns about the competence of English teachers. About the competence of English teachers in the junior high school system in Indonesia, Sadtono (1979) reported, "It is likely that less than 50 percent of the teachers are competent, and very few of them can speak English." About the competence of English teachers in the senior high school system in Indonesia, Sadtono remarked, "Most of the teachers, however, are relatively competent as approximately 65 percent of them are college graduates. Competent English teachers are few in comparison with teachers of other subjects, and they are usually in great demand. Consequently, they usually teach at several different schools to meet demands and, also, to make both ends meet. Such a situation is not at all favorable to the students, as the teachers are overburdened and concentrate less on each class."

Thus, the Indonesian students in this study lacked not only an effective English language training but also an exposure to the native speaker norm of English in their prior learning activities involving listening, speaking, reading and writing.

4. Causes of the Problems with Participation in Academic Discussions or Oral Presentations in English:

The time given for participation in academic discussions and oral presentation was not perceived to be enough for a foreign student, who needs more time to communicate a point or an idea than the usual pacing of a classroom discussion could provide. One student said, "... in a small group, I can speak English at my own normal speed, i.e., slowly. Also, there's enough time and I can make myself clear. I mean I can take my time in a small group discussion. But in the whole class, it's a problem. I may need 5 minutes to make myself clear, but it's not possible to take that much of time to elaborate my point." Another student stated, "... sometimes the time isn't enough.... I try to speak and I don't know whether he understands me or not."

One student perceived that his negative attitude toward his own contribution to a discussion was one of the causes of his problems with participation in academic discussions. He stated, "I've the feeling that if I talk too much, people will not understand [me] and I'll interrupt negatively and spoil the whole discussion. I tend to escape participating and keep quiet."

Students seemed to have lacked experience of speaking to an audience outside their own national group. One female student stated, "You see -- in a classroom in Malaysia, I was with Malaysian students only. When I stood up to talk, I faced Malaysians. I could speak Bahasa Malaysia. Even if I spoke in English, students could easily understand what I was trying to say.... Also, even if I made pronunciation mistakes, Malaysian students could easily figure out what the word was and what I was trying to say. I didn't have the feeling that I would be judged because I didn't meet the requirements [meaning -- 'standards'] of speaking native English. Even if I pronounced a word incorrectly, they understood me.... they too had similar problem with vocabulary and pronunciation. But here, if I make a speech, maybe American students will not understand my pronunciation. And they'll ask me again and again about what I'm saying, if they don't understand me. That will make me more nervous." Also to be noted is the fact that this was perhaps the first time the students had to speak formally in front of an audience and speak in English. They were perhaps not used to delivering a formal speech even in their native language.

The present study concluded that shyness, lack of personal fluency and self-expression in English, self-confidence, inadequate time and, above all, prior experience in participating in academic discussions were important causes of the Indonesian and Malaysian students' problem with participation in academic discussions or oral presentations in English.

5. Student-Teacher Relationship:

Another cause of the Indonesian and Malaysian students' problems with communication may have been the students' lack of familiarity with the socio-linguistic conventions that guide student-teacher relationships in a U.S. university setting.

It was apparent that the Indonesian and Malaysian students lacked the sociolinguistic competence to express their academic ability or needs to the American professors. They perceived that their academic ability was not fairly assessed by American professors. They also perceived that American students did not have this problem. One student explained this perception in the following terms, "The professor here is very close to American students. When an American professor and a student talk to each other, they look like friends talking to each other." Students believed that such friendly manner of communicating helped a professor understand American students better in comparison with the foreign counterparts. One male student from Malaysia explained the perceived cause of his not being understood well by an American professor, "I knew how to talk with professors back home. They knew how to treat me, what to tell me and how well to tell me so I could study well. He also knows how to encourage and inspire me so I study well. I expect the same from an American professor but don't receive it."

In the students' home countries, students experienced that some of their professors used to take the initiative to communicate with them. Some professors even encouraged them to come into their offices and talk with them. The invitational cues for communication is cultural. Either the Indonesian and Malaysian students were not familiar with the invitational cues used by their American professors or no such invitational cues were used.

6. Causes of Reading Problems:

What appears to be a major cause of the Indonesian and Malaysian students' problems with academic reading is their lack of prior experience in reading large quantities of printed materials for academic purposes. One student reported a lack of experience in reading in large quantities: "... one reason is we didn't have to read too many materials in our country ... compared to what we've to read here -- like in one week -- we read 6 or 7 books or something like that. But back home, we had much less reading to do ... It was just -- I had 2 or 3 assigned readings a semester -- so I could read in a relaxed way." Another student confirmed this finding by saying, "I don't have the experience to read so many books or materials within a short period of time. I've to get used to that and learn the efficient way to do that."

Lack of prior training in academic reading in English, e.g., skimming and scanning books and other materials for ideas and information, and having limited English vocabulary, bottom-up reading strategies and consequent slow reading speeds or having to frequently look up words in a dictionary during reading were other factors that caused respondents difficulties in finishing large quantities of reading in a short time.

Part of the Indonesian and Malaysian students' problems with oral communication and textbook reading can be attributed to their limited English vocabulary. This becomes evident from the following questionnaire comment of a student, "In some classes, I've difficulties in understanding what the instructor is talking about and the comments from the students. Some textbooks that I'm using now are somewhat difficult to understand due to the bombastic [high level and difficult] vocabulary. I've problem to communicate in English because I've very limited vocabulary and lack of confidence."

The present study confirmed results of previous research (Holes, 1972) and concluded that lack of prior practice in performing large quantities of reading, and inadequate English vocabulary partly accounted for the reading problems encountered by Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University.

7. Causes of Writing Problems:

Students interviewed mentioned various causes of their difficulties with academic writing in English. One of the causes of their writing problems was the interference from the native language. The difference between the written forms of students' native language and English in terms of tenses impeded and slowed down their writing in English. One student stated, "Because of the difference in tenses between Bahasa Indonesia and English, I've a problem. I need more time to finish a paper." Such delays are perhaps caused by the need to stop to look up a dictionary, a grammar book, a book of verbs, or having to ask a friend, when one does not know how to correctly use English tenses. This cause of the students' writing problems suggests a need for editing strategies so draft writing is less impeded.

According to one student, the sentence patterns in the native language caused problems in writing in English. The Indonesian and Malaysian students, whose native language is the same, were used to writing long sentences in the native language (Bahasa Indonesia or Bahasa Malaysia). This habit carried over to their writing practice in English. They first framed in their minds a long sentence in the native language and then tried to translate it into English. However, this strategy resulted in a long, unwieldy and incorrect sentence in English. One student stated, "When I try to express my ideas, I usually tend to follow the sentence pattern in my own language [Bahasa Indonesia]. There is already a sentence pattern in my head... It [a sentence in English] becomes very long. In English, you don't have such long sentences...." She went on to say, "... it's hard though to think in Indonesian first and then translate it into English.... When I started to write in English.... I usually translated Indonesian sentences into English sentences."

The present study supported previous research (Arani, 1985; & Atari, 1983) and concluded that interference from native language was one of the causes of the academic writing problems of the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University. Further, this study concluded that the difference between the written forms of English and students' native language in terms of tenses caused delay in completing a writing task in English.

8. Methods, materials and class time used in learning English in the home country:

The interview data provided evidence of the scarcity of textbooks in Indonesia. If an English-medium textbook was prescribed for a course, access to it was difficult either for lack of an efficient lending system or for lack of adequate number of copies of the same textbook in the university library. One student explained this situation, "Usually, we used to go to the library to read and we might not have a chance to read because another student from the [same] class checked it out. I used to wait until the book was returned so I could have my turn." She went on to say, "Student 'A' could keep the book for a week and after that it goes to student 'B' and after that to student' C.' Limited materials are the problem here."

Based on the report provided by Sadtono (1979) and the results of interview data from the present study, it can be concluded that a poor instructional system including teaching methods, availability of books, use of audio-visual materials, number of hours spent on classroom activities, and inadequate classroom condition for teaching English accounted for most of the English language-based problems of the Indonesian students at Indiana University.

9. Prior Learning Condition:

(a) Asking Questions:

Prior learning in the home country did not require student to develop questioning skills. One student stated, "Back home, we don't speak up in class. We are just expected to listen to what the teacher is saying." Another student stated, "In Malaysia, the professor does all the talking. He/she seldom gives any opportunity for students to ask questions. There's no encouragement to ask questions and students don't see the need to try to ask questions or to develop questioning skills. Usually, the professor doesn't hold any discussions in the classroom. He/she just gives the lecture and leaves and we just take notes. That's the usual method." Even if the professor allowed students to ask questions, he/she did so at the end of a class session and allocated a very small period of time for this purpose. Sometimes, it happened that before someone had his/her questioning turn, the allocated time was over. Also, students were in a mood to leave or were physically tired and might even be yawning. One student said, "If he chooses to do so, it's almost at the last moment when you're about to leave the classroom and go to another class. You're ready to leave and impatient to stay on to ask questions. You're tired and yawning."

(b) Non-verbal Communication:

Prior learning did not develop the skills of non-verbal communication in the classroom. Students were required to be silent and just to listen to the lecture. Pointing to the difference between the Indonesian and American classroom conventions, one student said, "I don't know how to explain this -- non-verbal communication -- we usually wait until the professor finishes the explanation. We don't stop the professor during the -- class session. He speaks while we [silently] take notes and when he gives us a period of time [at the end of class] for questioning, someone may ask a question. I'm still in the same habit of classroom behavior as I used to be in Indonesia." Another student stated, "... sometimes I just feel that it's not necessary for me to raise my hand because -- I'm not used to it -- you know -- raising my hand to show that I've to ask a question."

(c) Learning by Rote Methods:

In the educational systems of both Indonesia and Malaysia, questioning or critical thinking was not considered important for learning. One student said, "... asking questions is not considered an important part of teaching and learning." Memorization and test-taking through which they could demonstrate their knowledge are considered more important. Prior learning in both

Indonesia and Malaysia, thus, emphasized rote learning rather than training students in the art of questioning and critical analysis. The art or skill of questioning, i.e., the readiness to ask questions (without sounding rude to the professor), the habit of asking questions and critically examining topics and issues were not developed or encouraged by the educational systems of both countries. One student reported, "Besides, in the classroom situations, whether in schools or colleges, the teachers don't train us to think critically, e.g., asking questions, debating, taking sides on issues, etc., There is no such practice to develop critical thinking skills. We just do memorization for the purpose of passing tests...."

Since previous education utilized rote methods and did not encourage asking questions or critically examining topics and issues, respondents had difficulty asking questions or critically examining topics and issues in the classroom.

Based on the accumulated evidence from this study and the findings of previous research (Singh, 1963, cited in Weir, 1982: 93; Edwards, 1978, cited in Weir, 1982: 94; and Van Naerssen, 1984), the present study concluded that prior training by rote methods was partly responsible for the problems with asking questions in the classroom by Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana

University.

10. Cultural Causes:

It can be stated that learning conditions are created by culture. The interview responses of students indicated a number of cultural causes related to the English language-based problems of the Indonesian and Malaysian students. Some of them are discussed here.

(a) Fear of Being Ridiculed by Peers:

The problem with asking questions in the classroom is culturally based. One student explained this in the following way, "Usually, the professors [in the home country] didn't encourage us to ask questions [in the classroom]. Besides, there's a cultural problem with the peers. When someone asks a question in the classroom, everyone else is looking at her. That makes the questioner nervous. Looking at her makes her feel uncomfortable. That's the situation. So everybody tries to avoid asking questions in the classroom. Nobody asks any questions. I don't ask questions.... I'm not used to doing it because in my country, students rarely ask any questions in the classroom."

(b) Shyness and Inhibition:

Students indicated that they felt shy about asking questions in the classroom because they were not familiar with the participants in the class. This is also culturally based. One student explained this in the following terms, "In school [in Malaysia] it was different, because you are with your friends [peers] and you have been friends for a long time, ... it's a comfortable situation, but here it's different because every class you go to, it's different and there are very few classes that I'm in where there are people whom I have known before." Another student put it, "I feel both shy and nervous.... I feel quite nervous about asking a question in class. I feel shy. I think I may be embarrassed ... someone may laugh at me or make fun of me ... I think my expressions may not be correct, my sentence, my grammar may be incorrect."

Shyness appears to have been one of the causes of the Indonesian and Malaysian students' problems with participation in academic discussions. This becomes evident from the following comment of a questionnaire respondent, "I've hard time in participating in classes. I feel like asking or answering, but I don't have enough nerve to talk in class. In fact, to talk or ask classmates is also my problem. I don't have much problem in understanding lectures. So, generally my problem is [with] speaking. Maybe the problem is because of the way my culture is -- to be shy and not so aggressive.

Thus, students had what can be called a cultural inhibition about asking questions in the classroom. They were inhibited by their cultural attitude toward the teacher and found it difficult to change their traditional attitudes. Also, with the exception of a few, students had not received any orientation toward the American classroom conventions so that they could overcome their cultural inhibitions.

(c) Attitude toward Teacher:

In the classroom setting in both Indonesia and Malaysia, it is always the teacher who is talks and hands down knowledge to students. Students are the passive, humble and grateful recipients of that knowledge. They do not discuss or ask questions because the teacher is looked upon as the source of knowledge, an authority on a subject he/she teaches. Asking him/her questions may mean questioning his/her authority in the class. One student stated, "We do not do that. We aren't raised to ask questions. We're raised to show respects to parents and teachers and to only listen to them is our way of showing respects to them." He went on to say, "We think the professor knows everything about the subject like a father knows everything about what is right and what is wrong for his children." The teacher has a higher position in the social hierarchy and must be respected and the way students demonstrate this respect is by being docile and quiet and not sounding rude, aggressive and challenging to him by asking questions. A teacher is an authority and giver of knowledge that cannot be questioned. The American way of raising one's hand to stop the teacher and ask questions in the classroom freely and at any time seems to them like challenging the hierarchical order. Students may think that by asking questions, they might offend the professor, as one student put it, "That's why we think students should never interrupt the professor [by asking questions]."

(d) Cultural attitude toward learning:

In the Indonesian and Malaysian cultures, knowledge is also considered sacred. This attitude toward learning has roots in thee cultural and religious beliefs of the respondents. The following statement from one of the Malaysian students makes this assumption clear, "We're used to receiving direction and orders from the father. We don't question him.... His directions and orders are sacred. According to the teachings of Muhammad.... for children, the place of parents is next to God. In our lives, we look at this as something normal. Our attitude toward the teacher is, thus, influenced by this cultural view of our lives."

It appears that students found it difficult to overcome this cultural attitude toward the teacher, taking an initiative to ask questions, and quickly perceiving the right moment to ask a question in the classroom. One Malaysian student stated, "In my mind, I still look at teachers here the way I used to in Malaysia. I still expect that he will direct me to ask a question ... will give the class an assigned time to ask questions ... But here, a student has to take the initiative to ask questions. He/she [an American student] knows when to raise hand and how to ask a question but I don't. American students are prompt in perceiving what is the right moment to interrupt the professor to ask a question."

Because of their cultural attitude toward the teacher and ignorance of the norms that guide the sociolinguistic behavior in the American classroom, respondents encountered difficulty with asking questions or participating in academic discussions. Because of their cultural view that the teacher is a source of knowledge and the learner should be a passive, humble and respectful recipient of the knowledge, respondents were used to venerating the teacher by being docile and quiet, not sounding rude by interrupting and asking questions. In addition, respondents were shy (a cultural trait), lacked the communicative competence associated with interacting with a teacher or asking questions in the American classroom, and used to being told, like a father tells his children, what to do.

The present study concluded that the Indonesian and Malaysian students' difficulty with asking questions in the American classroom was caused by their cultural attitude toward the teacher and a gap in their sociolinguistic communicative competence associated with asking questions. The present study supported this conclusion.

Summary of Results:

The qualitative findings of the present study indicated that the major causes of the English language-based problems of the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University were: (1) Lack of practice in speaking English with native speakers while in the U.S.; (2) lack of practice in speaking English in classroom learning in the home country; (3) learning English from inadequately trained non-native speaking teachers of English; (4) shyness, and lack of personal fluency and self-expression in English, self-confidence, inadequate time and prior experience in participating in academic discussions; (5) lack of familiarity with the socio-linguistic conventions that guide student-teacher relationship in a U.S. university setting; (6) lack of prior practice in performing large quantities of reading, and inadequate English vocabulary for reading; (7) interference from students' native language and the difference between the written forms of students' native language and English, especially, in terms of tenses; (8) poor instructional system including teaching methods, availability of books, use of audio-visual materials, number of hours spent on classroom activities, and inadequate classroom condition; (9) prior training by rote methods; and (10) cultural attitude toward the teacher and a gap in the students' sociolinguistic communicative competence.

Discussion:

This chapter has identified the major causes of the English language-based problems of the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University. It has, thus, answered question # 3 of the study.

Results of the qualitative data indicated that most of the causes of the English language-based problems of the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University were related to their previous learning condition. The available data revealed that only two of the causes were related to their present learning -- (1) lack of practice in speaking English with native speakers in the U.S. and (2) colloquial or informal speech of Americans.

The present analysis does not clearly reveal national differences in prior causes. However, some differences can be noted. For example, some of the Malaysian students reported that they used to speak English at home as a first or second language, but none of the Indonesian students reported using English at home. Other causes were perhaps shared by both nationality groups. Students' (a) previous training by rote methods, (b) attitude towards the teacher and learning and (c) ignorance of the norms that guide the sociolinguistic behavior in the American classroom were among them.

Students' problems with writing can perhaps be attributed to the wide gap between the two differing systems of evaluation of educational achievement in the home country and the USA. In Indonesia and Malaysia, writing demands were relatively low. For evaluation of student learning, the educational systems of both countries relied on tests which required memorization of textual information. On the other hand, the U.S. educational system, which seeks to identify students' critical thinking ability, relies heavily on frequent writing tasks. Thus, the lack of performance of frequent writing tasks in prior learning is perhaps part of the writing problems encountered by the Indonesian and Malaysian students.

Conclusion:

In conclusion, it can be said that the causes of the English language-based problems of the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University as identified and analyzed above are mostly common to both Indonesian and Malaysian students.

CHAPTER 8

ANSWERING QUESTION # 4 OF THE STUDY: WHAT ARE THE MAJOR COPING STRATEGIES FOUND TO BE EFFECTIVE BY THE INDONESIAN AND MALAYSIAN STUDENTS FOR OVERCOMING LANGUAGE PROBLEMS AND ACHIEVING ACADEMIC SUCCESS?

This chapter answers question # 4 of the study: What are the major coping strategies found to be effective by the Indonesian and Malaysian students for overcoming language problems and achieving academic success?

The interview data indicated that the Indonesian and Malaysian students perceived that strategies of the following categories helped them overcome their English language-based problems, achieve academic success and improve their general communicative competence in English: (1) general oral communication; (2) classroom lectures; (3) classroom participation; (4) oral presentation; (5) reading large quantities of printed materials; (6) academic writing; (7) vocabulary development; and (8) burning the midnight oil. The strategies identified in this study are based on the assumption that the metacognitive awareness of language problems and knowledge of strategies one can use to overcome the problems are critical to the stage of coping.

(1) General Oral Communication Strategies:

For problems with speaking English in communicative situations, students used strategies such as the following: being persistent and trying to express themselves in many ways, e.g., using other words, repetition, elaboration, explanation, describing the whole situation, asking others (for example during an oral presentation or in a discussion session), spelling, giving examples or speaking slowly.

Students seemed to have employed various oral communication strategies. According to one student, being conscious that Americans would have difficulty understanding a foreign student led him to express himself in various ways, "... people have problem understanding me. With that awareness in mind or that consciousness, I try to express myself in many different ways." Persisting and not giving up in communicating was another strategy, as one student stated, "I feel that I must express myself, I don't give up. I try everything--I may use body language."

Imitating Americans and doing as they do when possible was a strategy that one student found to be helpful. He stated, "When I talk with Americans, I listen to them or hear them around me, I observe their manner of expressing themselves -- their patterns of speaking, i.e., what they say and how they say it in certain contexts. When I find myself in similar situations, I try to use expressions as an American would use. I imitate them ... during a conversation, I look for the words and expressions in my mind."

Avoidance was found to be one of the strategies used. One Indonesian student found that talking as little as possible was a way of avoiding embarrassment. He stated, "I don't want to be embarrassed ... I don't enter into a prolonged talking situation --- Even if I talk a little, I never bring up cultural things like sports, movies, etc., about which I don't know very much."

Asking an American to speak slowly during an informal social interaction was a strategy used by one student to ensure listening comprehension. He stated, "I tell him/her that I don't understand. The person may try to adjust his speed so I can understand."

Sharing and discussing perceived communication problems with friendly and empathetic Americans helped some students overcome the feeling of inferiority and develop a better self-image and self-confidence. One female Indonesian student told a newly found American friend that before coming to the U.S. she had a feeling of inferiority, a kind of feeling that she thought "every student goes through before going abroad." She mentioned that students from developing countries had poor self-image because of their national origins and perceived themselves to have low ability to communicate in English with Americans. In her view, foreign students from developing countries also perceived that the U.S. was a superior country, more advanced and superior in technology and educational standards, and that it might be hard for them to succeed here. When asked what she did to deal with this sort of inferiority complex, she replied, "I tried to talk about this ... with an American friend and she told me, 'No, you don't have to worry---you have come here on a scholarship. Therefore, you must be one of the most competent people --- You have been chosen from amongst the best individuals.'" The student added that this experience with the American helped her develop "self-esteem and self-confidence." Through this strategy of positive self-talk, she came to realize that Americans do not necessarily look down upon foreign students. In her own words, "They don't think that we're lower than them." Similarly, another Indonesian female student who exchanged ideas with Americans changed her previously held perception of American attitude toward foreign students. She stated, "I think one benefit I've [gained] is --- you know ---- my English articulation or pronunciation is clear to them to understand me. They really don't have heavy 'tragedies' on me [too much trouble understanding me] in communication. Most of my American friends will say, "I ... feel easy and comfortable to talk to you." Thus, seeking out Americans who are empathetic and non-judgmental as conversation partners was a strategy that helped students overcome the feeling of inferiority and develop a better self-image. Syananondh (1983) also found that talking with Americans was one of the methods used by most Thai-speaking foreign students in the U.S. for improving their English listening skills.

Other strategies cited by students interviewed included the following:

1. Asking an American speaker to repeat what he/she said.
2. Using other words that were close to the meaning when one failed to communicate for lack of words.
3. Repeating, elaborating or spelling of what was said.
4. Giving examples in order to illustrate it if a student was unable to express an idea clearly.
5. Speaking slowly.

2. Strategies for Coping with Lectures:

A number of strategies from amongst a broad range of strategies described by students were perceived by the researcher to be predominant. It can be said that perhaps most of the students interviewed employed these strategies at one time or another.

Some of the strategies employed by the students can be described as cooperative strategies. Having an ally, preferably someone from the home country, in the class was an effective strategy of coping with problems of classroom lectures. One student explained this strategy in the following way, "Each semester, I try to find if there's any Malaysian student in the class. I try to know him better so that if I've problem, I can borrow his notes." In his view, such an ally can also be an American student. Borrowing lecture notes from the classroom ally or any other sympathetic student seemed to be a predominant strategy. One student stated, "Sometimes in class break, I borrow lecture notes from someone. The class members go to get their drinks and I stay in the classroom and copy a fellow student's notes." Another respondent explained how he borrowed notes from a fellow student and copied notes that he had missed, "Sometimes I borrow notes from a fellow student and compare mine with his/hers and fill my notes with the missing information -- I copy the points missing from my notes."

Watching for clues provided by the professor was another strategy. When asked what clues he looked for in the lecture, one student stated that whatever the professor wrote on the chalkboard or presented through an overhead projector must have been important. In his own words, "The only clue I know is that if something is important, he [the professor] will write it on the board. I understand it from the lectures. Another clue as to what is important in the lecture is his use of an overhead projector. Whatever he presents through the transparencies are usually important."

Observing other students in the class and writing notes when they do so appeared to be another predominant strategy. When not sure as to whether or not a new point or topic was introduced, i.e., whether or not there was a shift, one student stated that he took notes when he found that other students in the class were doing so. He said, "Sometimes I'm not sure. But I look around and find that everyone [in the class] is writing! Then I realize that the professor has changed the topic." He further said, "I go by the direction of the class -- what they are doing -- whether or not other students are taking notes is a signal for me.... If they are writing it down, I try to write it down. I think that this point or these points must be important. So I try to write them down."

Some of the students stated that they tried to communicate with a professor in his office when they had a problem understanding his lecture and talking with him in the classroom (either before or after the lecture). One student explained his rationale and method in doing so in the following terms, "Sometimes, if I've the chance, I talk with him in the classroom after the class is over. When I can't do so, I see him in his office. He usually explains things I missed or didn't understand. While listening to him in his office, I take notes. That's how I make up." Another student stated that he felt more comfortable communicating with the professor in his/her office than in the classroom. He explains his reasons for feeling that way, "Since I've the problem of articulating a question, I try to make my question very short and simple. But if I've a long or elaborate question, I see the professor in his office where I can speak in a low and soft voice, the way I'm used to talking." Holes (1972, cited in Weir, 1982: 93) suggested that foreign students who lacked confidence in their English and had fear of the British students' ridicule of their clumsy or ill-formed sentences used approaching teachers after the class as a strategy. This was, said Holes, a strategy which was perhaps indicative of a gap in their communicative competence, viz., ignorance of the socio-linguistic conventions associated with asking questions in public.

One student perceived that being prepared for the class by reading the textbook or other sources prior to coming to class was an effective strategy. He explained this in the following terms, "Usually, prior to coming to class, I read the textbook or other sources. So I come prepared to class. I know what the professor is going to talk about and I try, ahead of time, to form an understanding of the lecture topic." Being prepared for the lecture and concentrating on listening to the lecture was considered to be the key to overcoming problems related to classroom lectures.

Being prepared is also a key to overcoming problems of classroom participation as illustrated in the following section.

3. Strategies for Coping with Problems of Classroom Participation:

Almost no commonality emerged in terms of the students' use of strategies for classroom participation; various students seemed to have used various strategies.

One student found that reading the assigned materials and being prepared was also the key to being able to participate in the class discussions. One could be prepared by reading and understanding the subject of discussion. One could use what one had understood from the textbook and use the information for the classroom discussion or making a contribution. He stated, "... what helps is if I try to read and understand the case [a Business topic for discussion in class] in the textbook ahead of time. I use ... my knowledge of the case and try to participate." The student who was a business major went on to say, "If I'm prepared, it helps. I can communicate more easily. But if I don't understand the topic [because I haven't studied the case], then I find it hard to communicate. It's bad."

A political science major gave the following account of how his class participation skills developed over time. He explained his difficulty of participating in English in the classroom to a professor personally in the office. The effort resulted in the professor's supportive and helpful attitude toward him. The professor made sure that the student learned to speak in the classroom, overcame inhibition and adapted to the American classroom conventions. The student, thus, described his experience with the professor, "I went to see the professor and told him that was my first semester here and that I wasn't used to participating in the classroom." He added, "I told him that I didn't understand American students' answers and comments because of their fast speaking and accent. There was no way I could either understand or comment on comments given by American students. He was very sympathetic toward me. I didn't know what he was going to do about my grade for class participation. But later on, I found that he encouraged me to speak in the class by way of asking me to say something which wasn't hard for me to do. In course of time, I developed self-confidence in speaking in class. He helped me a lot in overcoming my initial difficulty." The student further said, "He understands my initial problem. He tried to help me a lot in the class. He seldom asked me a question which I couldn't answer. He never asked me a question that required longer explanation. He made it a point to ask me questions so I could participate in the class. But he usually asked me questions that required short and simple answers, not elaboration. That way, in his view, I still participated in the class and fulfilled the requirement without having to do a lot of talking and explaining." The student went on to add, "He actually taught me how to participate." He went on to generalize, "Some of them are very sympathetic. They know that some people just cannot speak in class and have been very understanding." Thus, this example illustrates how a particular faculty member's teaching strategy helped one student develop effective learning strategies.

Another student stated that direct solicitation from the group leader or a group member helped him overcome the initial uncomfortable feeling about saying something in a group meeting. He said, "This kind of solicitation helps me because I feel comfortable and since they ask me to respond to a specific question that involves a short answer, I find it easy to answer. Naturally, I keep thinking about saying something about a specific aspect [of the topic under discussion] but don't know what to say. But when someone asks for my specific response, I say something." She further added, "This kind of solicitation helps me find an answer and say something."

One student stated that interest and motivation in a subject or topic was helpful for her participation in class discussions. She said, "Last semester, it was one course in Child Development. It wasn't required that we participate. But because of the subject -- it's so interesting --- I liked the subject very much -- I liked the readings very much -- it wasn't that I just tried to prepare some questions for class discussion. I was very much motivated to participate. But this semester, I'm taking courses in which I'm neither interested nor motivated to participate." The same student also felt that being resolved to say something and writing down what to say in the class was a helpful strategy for her. She said, "I just remind myself --- [that] I've to say something in the class." Thus, making a mental note about saying something in the classroom was a strategy used.

Making an effort to participate no matter how faulty his English was a desperate strategy used by one English major from Malaysia. He stated, "I try to be brave enough to say something."

Other strategies used by students included the following: (1) forcing oneself to speak; (2) thinking of any related idea and expressing it; (3) listening carefully and paying full attention to the discussion;

(4) preparing the question and putting it in writing and then reading it, if unable to express verbally; and (5) asking classmates or the professor when not understanding answers and comments given by native speakers to questions in the classroom.

One student openly admitted to not employing any strategy. He stated that he did not do anything when he did not understand some answers and comments, although he realized that he needed to understand them. He simply let it go, as he said, "Usually, I don't do anything. I let it go. I try to listen carefully but still I can't understand them."

4. Oral Presentation:

The only two students who had the experience of making oral presentations talked about their strategies.

One student stated that she supplemented linguistic strategy by other means. When she was unable to explain some ideas or points in her oral presentation, she used audio-visuals or wrote on the chalkboard. She said, "Use of audio-visual materials helps me a lot. And I like to draw and write [on the chalkboard]." She added, "I couldn't speak well and that's why I tried to explain my points with the help of audio-visual aids. Using audio-visual aids helps, because I can remember all the points that I need to talk about. To present each point, I show a transparency and then explain in one or two sentences. Doing this is not as hard as trying to remember all the aspects of a point when making an oral presentation."

The second student took a psychological approach to enlist audience empathy. She primed her audience to be more empathetic and supportive of her presentation by starting her oral presentation with an apology and explaining that she had language problems. The same student found that asking Americans to repeat questions when she failed to understand them was her other listening strategy. She said, "You know -- they speak very fast. I can't make sense of what they say. I've to ask them to repeat the question. Or, sometimes if I don't understand a question, but I know the answer, I still speak. But sometimes they don't understand what I say." Other strategies cited were: (1) preparing an outline of points on index card before giving a speech -- writing down all the important points; (2) observing how American or other students give presentations and learn from that; and (3) being well prepared with visual aids, outlines, index cards with notes, and so on.

5. Strategies for Coping with Reading Large Quantities of Printed Materials:

The students interviewed found that suddenly they had a huge amount of reading to do. They also found that certain strategies were effective for them in coping with the overwhelming problems of reading large quantities of printed materials.

One student found that she alone could not deal with all the materials she had to read in a week. Therefore, she formed a study group and divided the reading task among the group members, then met to discuss the readings. Such a meeting was either for a discussion, a collaborative writing project, or answering assigned questions. For example, if there were multiple questions to answer for such a writing project, each group member would answer one question using the information from the materials assigned to her.

One Indonesian student stated that if she failed to comprehend certain previously assigned material even after reading it several times, she used to wait for the next lecture and re-read the material after that. This strategy seemed to have helped her, as she said, "If I still don't understand, my strategy is to leave it and go to class first. The lecture covers the information in the reading assignment. So I listen to the lecture. After class, I read it [again] and only then the text makes sense to me."

One student stated that if all other strategies failed, he used to ask the professor concerned to explain some points he did not understand in the materials he had read. He said, "If I still have a problem, I see the professor and request him to explain some points in the reading assignment. The professor usually helps by explaining what I find difficult."

One of the interviewees stated that completing an intensive English program before enrolling in a degree program helped her in coping with the study demands as a graduate student. She said, "They taught me how to skim-read --- [now] I try to read a whole paragraph [text] as quickly as possible." This report contradicts a previous research conclusion (Mason, 1971, cited in Weir, 1982: 99) that "at least for many intermediate to advanced foreign students ... intensive E.F.L. work may be a waste of time."

Students further cited the use of the following strategies:

1. To overcome the problem with reading large quantities of printed materials, one tried first to find the most important book or source and then read it more carefully than others.
2. Highlighting a text while reading it for the first time helped one re-read it faster the second time around.

3. To ensure comprehension of a text, one was persistent and persevered and read it as many as twice or thrice. One would even read word for word.

6. Strategies for Coping with Problems of Academic Writing:

Respondents reported that they applied one or more of the following strategies to overcome the problems they had with writing in various courses: (a) writing in the native language first and then translating it into English, (b) taking a composition course, (c) forcing oneself to write and overcome procrastination, (d) concentrating on the writing task and sacrificing everything else such as social or any non-academic activities, and (e) starting writing far in advance of the deadline for a course assignment.

One Indonesian student stated that she wrote first in her native Bahasa Indonesia and then translated it into English. She read as many sources as possible in English and tried to understand the content and thought and then wrote in her native language first and then translated it into English.

To perform general reading and writing tasks quickly, one student stated that he had to sacrifice everything else [e.g., watching TV, going to the movies, visiting friends, etc.] and to concentrate on reading and writing. He said, "Usually, I've to ignore other things and devote all my time to writing the [assigned] papers. I try to spend most of my time in the library writing." He went on to say, "... if there are too many things to do --- if there are too many assignments that need to be done and I don't have time, I just ignore some things, like I don't check for grammatical errors."

Monitoring deadlines carefully and doing effective time management in writing help handle a situation in which one has several papers due all at the same time. Because of the inability to write quickly when several papers were due, one started working on papers far in advance of the deadlines. Speaking of the fact that she was usually late in turning in papers, one student described her strategy in the following way, "I'm usually kind of late. I'm really careful about that. I usually plan ahead of time. I look at the due dates and time myself and mark my calendar. I say to myself, 'I must finish this by this date, finish that by this date and so on." In response to the researcher's question as to whether or not she was learning to do better in time management, she replied, "Yes. I've to. Otherwise, I'll go crazy." To overcome the problem of delay, one student stated that she had to force herself to start writing. She stated, "I just have to sit down and write. When I'm desperate and don't have very much time [left], something comes to my mind --- I'll spend the whole day doing the paper. Sometimes I even stay up all night to finish a paper."

For one student, explaining to a professor about his difficulty of writing quickly was helpful. It created empathy and helped him avoid getting a low grade. He said, "I try to talk to them [professors] and communicate with them. I tell them about my problems, ask them for advice as to how I could do better. As a result, they seem to understand me and are sympathetic toward me. They seem to take into consideration my difficulties and not give me a low grade." He added, "Sometimes I find that I'm lucky because my grades don't suffer. When I receive the grade, it's a good one even though I think I didn't put much time and effort into it. I'm surprised." Another student found that reading printed materials in English helped him improve his English syntax. He stated, "... there's problem in producing formal good English structure in my writing. That's why I need to read a lot because by reading I can acquire more patterns of writing in English."

Other editing strategies cited by the students included:

1. Showing the draft of a paper to the professor and getting his/her feedback before turning in the final version.

2. Asking a friend to edit a paper after writing it.
3. Looking up a grammar book or a dictionary to remove mother tongue interferences in the use of sentences, number, articles and adjectives.
4. Editing a paper as many times as necessary to make it concise.

7. Vocabulary Development Strategies:

Students found various strategies or situations to be helpful in overcoming their English vocabulary problems. Residing and being involved in academic activities in a U.S. university helped one student improve his vocabulary. He stated, "There are a lot of words [I had learned] that I never used before. But after I met people and had to talk to them and found that I had to speak, I know that I have to use this word instead of the other word which isn't appropriate...."

Being in the environment in which English is used as the language of communication was helpful in improving one's English vocabulary. Such an environment may mean having an English-speaking roommate or living in a dormitory where English is the only language of communication. One Indonesian student stated, "Actually, what helps is having a roommate -- I mean a roommate with whom I could speak English. But Miss X, my present roommate, is from Indonesia and we speak Bahasa Indonesia all the time at home. It doesn't help. She doesn't encourage me to speak English. I wish I could speak English. But when I stayed in Eigenmann Hall, I had the opportunity of speaking English; not too many Indonesians were there. I didn't seek out Indonesians to hang around with them either. I met friends who were from Japan, the Philippines, the Middle East, and so on, and it helped me practice speaking English -- so I spoke English with them because that was the only common language through which I could communicate with them."

One student stated that, for terms and definitions in textbooks, waiting for the lecture in which the professor would explain them was a helpful strategy. He said, "... sometimes the professor discusses the meanings of specialized terms in the class. That helps -- it becomes much easier for me when I read the textbook after the lecture." According to another student, asking a fellow student or the course professor was a good strategy. She stated, "I try to ask a friend about that. That's the most helpful way for me. Sometimes I go to see the professor and tell him that I couldn't understand this reading."

When one had a problem understanding an English word with multiple meanings, one looked up a bilingual dictionary and differentiated among the various meanings of an English word in the native language first and then relied on the context to determine the appropriate meaning. One student said, "I also write my own notes in which I try to determine the meaning of a word. As I said, I try to differentiate between one meaning and the other and use the context to determine the appropriate meaning." She further said, "When I encounter this problem, I read the whole sentence in order to get the meaning of a word that has multiple meanings. I also try to use the context to understand the relevant meaning."

To improve his English vocabulary and syntax, one student stated that he used to take suggestions from the professor. Following the professor's suggestions, this student spent extra time in reading materials outside the courses as much as possible so that he could improve his English vocabulary and syntax for writing in English. Such outside materials for additional reading included The Time, The Newsweek, and daily newspaper articles on various topics and issues.

Students also mentioned the use of the following strategies: re-reading the sentence or the whole paragraph that has a word with multiple meanings; asking a friend who was more proficient in English; and not worrying about the meaning of a word with multiple meanings as long as one could comprehend the main idea of a paragraph or text by relating one sentence to the other; watching TV and listening to the radio; reading English books, magazines and newspapers; and using a native language-English dictionary.

8. Burning the Midnight Oil:

Some respondents reported that they were self-motivated about performing their learning tasks. They worked hard and stayed up late at night in order to ensure that they finished a reading/writing task. This theme became apparent from discussions about other aspects of their study activities.

Moore (1987) pointed out self-motivation and natural inquisitiveness as factors contributing to a foreign student's academic success. Because of this variable, they generally perform academically as well or better than their U.S. counterparts and have a very high rate of success, despite the plethora of academic, social and personal problems they encounter (Moore, 1987).

Summary of Results:

The following have been identified as some of the major strategies that helped the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University overcome their English language-based problems, achieve academic success and improve their communicative competence in English: (1)

being persistent and trying to express oneself in many ways; (2) imitating Americans and doing as they do when possible; (3) sharing and discussing communication problems with friendly and empathetic Americans; (4) having an ally in a course, borrowing notes from someone and tape-recording lectures; (5) reading the assigned materials and being prepared for the lecture; (6) observing other students in the class and writing notes when they do so; (7) communicating with the professor in the office rather than in the classroom; (8) forcing oneself to speak in the classroom when unable to speak because of shyness and inhibition; (9) supplementing linguistic strategy by other means during an oral presentation; (10) forming a study group and dividing a reading assignment among group members; (11) being persistent and reading a text as many times as necessary or waiting until next lecture to ensure comprehension of assigned reading materials; (12) writing in the native language first and then translating it into English; (13) monitoring deadlines carefully and doing effective time management in writing; (14) residing and being involved in the U.S.; (15) using a bilingual dictionary; and (16) being self-motivated and working hard.

Discussion:

This chapter has identified the coping strategies found to be effective by the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University for overcoming their language problems and achieving academic success. It has, thus, answered question # 4 of the study.

If students had problems in verbal and non-verbal communication, how did they communicate their understanding of course content to their professors? One plausible explanation can be that written work became more important for communication of their comprehension of course content to the professor. The grade assigned for class participation or any other forms of verbal communication was insignificant in comparison with the grade assigned for written performance. The Indonesian and Malaysian students, who encountered problems of sociolinguistic conventions for classroom communication or communication with the American professor, demonstrated their achievement or understanding of course content through written assignments or examinations. Thus, the present study supported Weir ((1982) who stated, "As the course develops, writing skills will eventually become more important and will generally 'supersede understanding as a cause of major difficulty as written work has to be submitted.'"

Also, for an Indonesian/Malaysian student, an American degree was needed not only for the development of his country but also for his on-the-job training. Therefore, students may have overwhelmingly worked hard to achieve their academic goals. Perhaps they were highly self-disciplined, motivated and had an inner drive to succeed since a degree from an American university had a practical value for them.

Perhaps an American degree also had an emotional value to the Indonesian and Malaysian students. It was a symbol of social status, of success and of personal and family pride. Many students may have tried for many years in order to be accepted by an American university. Only a fortunate few eventually made it to a U.S. university. Those who were able to attend a U.S. university appreciated the opportunity and worked hard to earn their degrees. As success was a matter of pride, failure to achieve long-cherished career goals meant not only a disservice to their home countries and loss of promotion but also low self-image and loss of face to family, friends and colleagues and, finally, a defeat.

Conclusion:

It is concluded that use of various types of strategies and metacognitive control of the strategies to accomplish a learning task, a high level of self-discipline and motivation and an inner drive to succeed in a degree program enabled the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University to overcome language problems and achieve success.

CHAPTER 9

CASE STUDIES

Introduction:

The following two case reports provide the profiles of two individual students. Through these two case reports, the researcher sought to examine the similarities and differences in the background characteristics, the nature and causes of the English language-based problems and the coping strategies of the two students. The data for each case have been collected through personal interviews, observation of the student in his/her classroom, and assessment of the student's essays and lecture notes.

There are several reasons why these two cases were chosen. The two cases were selected because they represented two different nationalities, genders, age groups, educational levels (graduate and undergraduate), fields of study and, above all, colonial educational backgrounds. Also, these students were found to be more expressive in articulating their language problems and coping strategies. Finally, they mentioned many of the strategies used by others, so their cases were considered good composites of these strategies.

Case Report: Lidia

Lidia is a 32-year old graduate student from Indonesia. She is working for a master's degree in Health Science at Indiana University, Bloomington. As an employee of the Indonesian Army Health Services, she has been sponsored by the USAID to study a field that is related to her current job. Lidia's native language is Bahasa Indonesia. While growing up in her parents' home, she spoke Dutch as a second language. She sees English as a foreign language and the language of learning in her present field.

Family Background:

Lidia was born in a Catholic family and grew up with both of her natural parents and brother. For her parents, Bahasa Indonesia was the native language and Dutch was the second language. Her father was a psychiatrist, hence well-educated. Her mother, who was a high school graduate and homemaker, knew several European languages including English. Interestingly enough, as a child Lidia noticed that her parents, who were educated in the Dutch colonial system and spoke Dutch and Bahasa Indonesia at home most of the time, also knew English. Her parents used to use some English words and expressions even in their daily conversations in Dutch or Bahasa Indonesia and also read children's story books to her in English. As Lidia later discovered, they were trying to familiarize her with the English language and also to motivate her to learn English.

Although Lidia picked up Dutch as a second language from her parents, in her present household, with her husband and her son, she mostly speaks Bahasa Indonesia. According to her, there is practically no use of Dutch as a second language in her present household. Her husband, due to his family background, has not learned Dutch. He works for a multinational company in Jakarta. His job involves the use of English for meetings and interactions with foreigners.

Lidia thinks that she is more proficient in Dutch than in English because the former was the language spoken in her parents' home. However, Lidia perceived that both her husband and herself needed knowledge and skills in English for their training and development in the present professions.

Schooling and Learning of English in Indonesia:

Lidia had a total of 6 years of formal instruction in English in Indonesia, from grade 8 in the junior high school through the freshman year in college. In grade 8, she had one class session for 45 minutes, three times a week. The total number of hours of English instruction was two hours and a quarter per week. She learned English at this rate for 5 years in junior and senior high schools.

Lidia's English Teachers:

In her schools, Lidia was taught English by Indonesian-born teachers of English who used the grammar-translation method.

Lidia's Rationale for Learning English:

Although she learned English in school and college, she was not sure as to what purpose it would serve. She learned English because it was mandatory from the junior high school through the freshman year in college. She used to think that the only way she would use English would be to read books and materials in English in her leisure time. She discovered the real utility of learning the language only when she became interested in a higher degree in her field from a U.S. university. This interest strongly motivated her to learn English even beyond her school and college freshman year. For example, she had six months of intensive English from the American-Indonesian Cultural Association in Jakarta after graduation from college.

Lidia's English Language-based Problems at Indiana University:

During the interview, Lidia identified her English language-based problems involving vocabulary; informal conversations; fluency and self-expression; pronunciation; understanding American English; understanding classroom lectures; asking questions in the classroom; participation in academic discussions; oral presentation; non-verbal communication; study skills for reading a large quantity of materials in a course; and writing essays.

Causes of Lidia's English Language-based Problems:

Lidia perceived a number of factors to be responsible for her English language-based problems in her present program of study. She perceived that she had verbal and non-verbal communication problems because of her lack of familiarity with American expressions, delayed or inappropriate responses for having to think in Bahasa Indonesia and then expressing it in English, lack of self-confidence and feeling nervous, the fast pace of an American professor's lecture, and lack of training and practice in classroom participation, asking questions and giving oral presentations. She also lacked a systematic method of studying as well as training and practice in performing large quantities of reading and writing in English. Finally, the interference from the native language in writing English and the wide gap between prior learning condition and the present demands of learning at a U.S. university were some other causes of her language problems.

Lidia's Strategies to Cope with Language Problems:

While at Indiana University, Lidia reported that her use of the following strategies helped her overcome her language problems and achieve academic success. She found that talking and discussing language problems with Americans in general and with members of a local Catholic church helped her develop a better self-image. She found watching TV and listening to the radio to be helpful to improve English vocabulary and pronunciation. Her other strategies for general verbal communication included: asking others about English words not known or about how to pronounce some English words; describing a whole situation when unable to find the right word or expression; circumlocution; being persistent to explain something; asking someone to repeat; reading about America, its people and culture; and having a non-Indonesian roommate. Her strategies for coping with classroom lectures, classroom discussions and oral presentations were: borrowing lecture notes from a friend and writing down the missing information; writing down a question before articulating it in the classroom; having a friend ask a question to the professor; using a tape-recorder to tape lectures; using audio-visuals for classroom presentation; and talking with the professor in the office. For coping with her reading problems, Lidia found that taking intensive English courses; reading carefully the most important source when there is a long list of readings for a course; skim-reading; using an English-Indonesian dictionary; and using the context to understand the meaning of an English word with multiple meanings were helpful or effective. For coping with her academic writing problems, Lidia found the following strategies to be effective: having a paper edited by a friend who has better command of English; getting feedback from the professor on the draft of a paper; and sacrificing everything else in order to finish writing a paper on time.

Lidia has been in the U.S. for about 9 months studying at Indiana University. When asked by the researcher if she had made any significant improvement in her English during the 9-month stay at Indiana University, her modest response was: "Maybe. Particularly, my textbook reading skills have improved. By now, I feel that textbooks in English are easier for me to understand than they were when I first came here. But I still feel I need to further improve my conversational/speaking skills. Speaking English is still a hard thing for me." The statement suggests perhaps that, although she had initial problems, Lidia is not having much of problems with academic reading and writing at Indiana University any more. It also suggests that her problems lie mostly in the areas of verbal and non-verbal communication in general.

In the interview, Lidia indicated that she was doing well in her courses. How, then, did she achieve her academic success despite her language problems? What was her strength that led to her achievement in course work? One explanation can be that perhaps her inner drive for success, self-motivation, self-discipline and hard work coupled with her effective use of study strategies were factors responsible for Lidia's success.

Case Report: Nizam

Nizam is a 23-year old undergraduate student from Malaysia studying Political Science at Indiana University, Bloomington. He is one of the students sponsored by the Malaysian government. Nizam's native language is Bahasa Malaysia and second language is English. Nizam saw English as the second language in bilingual communication at home and in society, the language of learning and the language for verbal and written communication at workplace in his home country.

Family Background:

Nizam was born in a traditional Muslim family and grew up with both natural parents and three sisters. Nizam's father specialized in Islamic Studies. He began his career as a high school teacher of Islamic Studies and retired as an Assistant Director of the Department of Religious Affairs at the Malaysian Ministry of Education. Nizam's mother is a homemaker.

Parental Attitude toward Western Education and English:

Both of Nizam's parents have a positive attitude toward higher education in general. They take his higher education in the U.S, as a matter of personal and family pride. They are very enthusiastic and supportive about his studies in the U.S. Nizam reported that his parents realized the importance of English as a world language and wanted him to make progress learning it.

Nizam's Rationale for Learning English:

It is to be noted that English is very much a part of the Malaysian culture. Educated Malaysians are bilingual. Traditionally, English is used as the second language. English words and expressions come naturally in conversations between two educated Malaysians. Despite the fact that Bahasa Malaysia is the native tongue, English is the preferred language of Malaysian bureaucrats.

Nizam's rationale for studying political science is to become a Foreign Affairs official for the government of Malaysia. As a prospective government bureaucrat, he will have to use English for written communication within and outside the administration. English is considered the preferred language of Malaysian bureaucrats because it is perceived to be more effective than Bahasa Malaysia for official communication. Certain administrative terms in English have no equivalent terms in Bahasa Malaysia. Even if equivalent administrative terms have been introduced into Bahasa Malaysia, the terms are not considered "effective" or "well-established" for bureaucratic communication purposes. Nizam further observed that the high-ranking bureaucrats in his country's government always speak English among themselves in their offices. But he also noticed the same officers may speak Bahasa

Malaysia with the low-ranking officers. Since Nizam's goal is to become one of the high-ranking officials of the Malaysian government, he wants to be "proficient" in English."

Nizam also talked about his own affective reasons for learning English. He thought that learning English made him feel confident and important. He stated, "... knowing English well makes me confident about myself. Knowing good English means I won't have any problem communicating with other people. English is the lingua franca of the world and I must know it. It's the practical importance of English as a world language that motivated me to learn English. Knowing English makes me feel that I'm important, I'm something."

Nizam Sees Practical Use of English for Higher Education:

While studying political science at a university in Malaysia, Nizam realized that English would serve him one practical purpose. He found that textbooks in English were essential for studying political science. He realized that he could not study political science through Bahasa Malaysia because there was a lack of terminology and an acute shortage of political science textbooks in the language. He stated, "Bahasa Malaysia has not developed the terms and style of writing to present the same political science concepts and theories as I read them in the English language. In conclusion, I must say that I can't pursue higher studies in my field without the knowledge of, and the ability to use, the English language."

As a matter of fact, when he began to learn political science, he began with books written in English. The terms and expressions that define concepts, theories and models in political science were first acquired by him by reading books written in English, not in Bahasa Malaysia. He stated, "... all I've learned about political science has been through the English language. By now, I'm familiar with the political science concepts in English and I feel comfortable with thinking and reasoning in political science in English. I know most concepts, theories and terms in English. But I haven't learned them in the Malay language.

Also, Nizam stated that, for higher studies in political science, Malaysian students traditionally go to the English-speaking countries of the West. Hence, there is a need for students to know English well.

Learning English in Schools:

Nizam has received formal instruction in English for a total of fourteen years and a half, starting in the kindergarten year. Malaysia offers 12 years of schooling. The schools are divided into kindergarten (1 year), primary (6 years) and high school (5 years). In the kindergarten, he began learning both English and native

Bahasa Malaysia. In the primary and high school grades, the medium of instruction was and still is Bahasa Malaysia but English is taught as the second language.

English Instruction in the Schools:

Nizam received one hour of English instruction in the primary school everyday. The stress of English instruction was on reading skills, grammar and vocabulary. The focus of high school English instruction was on reading skills, grammar and writing. As far as reading instruction was concerned, the teacher would assign a book, e.g., a novel, a week. On the following Monday, the classroom teacher would ask students to present their summary on the book and also answer comprehension questions.

Nizam's English Teachers in Schools:

The teachers in Nizam's kindergarten, primary and high schools were all Malaysians. Some of them were trained overseas and some others were graduates of local teacher's colleges.

English Language Training at the Malaysia/Indiana University Cooperative Program at Shah Alam:

Before coming to Indiana University, Nizam received two and a half years of education in the Indiana University project at Shah Alam, Malaysia. The Shah Alam project offered what he described as a sort of intensive English to students who were likely to study in the U.S. Nizam's involvement in this preparatory program also gave him some exposure to American culture.

Nizam reported that weekly orientation sessions were held by American staff during the semester prior to coming to the U.S. Discussions were held during the sessions. He described a typical orientation session in the following words, "We had questions and answers. The instructor encouraged us to ask questions about American culture. The instructor used to answer our questions. His response was more elaborate than the answer entailed." The professors also showed videos and slides on high school and college life in the U.S.

Some of the American professors in the preparatory program at Shah Alam encouraged Malaysian students to socialize with their families. Nizam's socialization also included playing basketball with American teenagers. That is how Nizam "learned a little about how they are." On occasions, e.g., on July 4, the professors also invited Nizam to their houses for dinner and to talk about America.

Nizam's instructors in the preparatory program at Shah Alam were all Americans. Nizam perceived that his American teachers were better as far English pronunciation and usage were concerned. He stated, "Especially, for words and expressions that are full of cultural connotations, the American teachers were better because they had the cultural knowledge behind those words and expressions. The Americans had a better way of expressing themselves in English in certain situations."

Speaking of his overall impression of the preparatory program at Shah Alam, Nizam stated, "There I learned a little about how to communicate with them [American professors]. Sometimes I used to go to see them [American professors] in their office[s]. They used to tell me about American life. I saw pictures and posters on the USA. Sometimes they showed me their personal pictures. They helped me form an idea about the USA."

Language Problems at Indiana University:

Despite years of learning and using English and completion of the Indiana University preparatory program at Shah Alam, Malaysia, for two years and a half, Nizam reported having encountered English language-based problems at Indiana University, Bloomington. His major problems were in the areas of (1) verbal communication; (2) classroom performance; (3) understanding lectures, and (4) academic reading and writing. More specifically, Nizam encountered problems with (1) English pronunciation; (2) fluency and self-expression; (3) having appropriate words and expressions; (4) initiating a conversation; (5) American English, particularly, colloquial speech of Americans; (6) American culture; (7) jokes and humor in the classroom; (8) asking questions in the classroom; (9) participating in whole class discussions; (10) communicating with the American professors; (11) being easily understood by, and understanding, the American professor; (12) understanding classroom lectures; (13) taking notes from lectures; (14) presenting and answering questions during an oral presentation; (15) integrating information from multiple sources; (16) reading large quantities of printed materials; (17) reading comprehension; (18) subject-related terminology; (19) English words with multiple meanings; (20) how to start writing a paper; (21) paraphrasing; and (22) writing quickly. In addition, Nizam reported that he encountered vocabulary problems in general and in academic English.

Causes of Language Problems:

Nizam perceived that a number of factors were responsible for his English language-based problems at Indiana University, Bloomington. The wide gap between his native and the American cultures is one such cause. His pronunciation and soft, gentle and low voice of speaking was perceived to be one such cause of his language problems. He perceived that the professor could not clearly hear him when he spoke in the classroom.

Nizam perceived that there were other cultural factors that were responsible for his English language-based problems at Indiana University. Perhaps the most important cause was related to the role of the professor in the teaching/learning process. Nizam described the role of the Malaysian professor in the following terms, "It's always the professor who is talking and handing down knowledge. We just receive it; we don't discuss or ask questions because the professor is the source of knowledge, the authority. Asking him questions may mean questioning his authority in the class. We don't do that. We aren't raised to question. We're raised to show respects to adults including parents and teachers and listening to them passively is our way of showing respects. We think the teacher knows everything about the subject like a father knows everything about what is right and wrong for his children." Besides, says Nizam, the Malaysian teacher did not train students to ask questions or discuss topics critically. He added that "asking questions is not considered [to be] an important part of teaching/learning." Taking tests in which one can demonstrate rote memorization was considered more important in the learning process in Malaysia.

Based on his prior learning in Malaysia, Nizam expected that the teacher in the American classroom would direct him to ask a question by giving the class an assigned time to ask questions at the end of a class session. He found it difficult to take the initiative to ask questions or to quickly perceive the right moment to ask questions because he did not know the socio-cultural propriety and conventions that guide communication in the American classroom.

Nizam further perceived that there was a cultural cause related to his problems of speaking in the classroom. In Malaysia, when someone tried to speak in the classroom, others look at him, making him nervous. Nizam still felt nervous about speaking in the classroom because other students would be looking at him. That is why he avoided asking questions in the classroom at Indiana University.

Other major perceived causes of Nizam's English language-based problems were: (1) his negative attitude to his own contribution to a classroom discussion; (2) feeling intimidated about speaking in a whole class discussion; (3) being conscious about his own errors in speaking English; (4) not being used to speaking in front of an audience outside his own national group; (5) poor note-taking and information integration skills; and (6) poor knowledge of English grammar.

Strategies to Overcome Language Problems:

Nizam used a number of strategies in an effort to overcome his language problems and achieve academic success. To overcome problems with general verbal communication, Nizam used strategies such as (1) trying to express himself in many ways; (2) repeating what was said; (3) asking someone to provide a word or expression in the classroom communication; (4) applying the same communication strategies to Americans as he did to fellow Malaysians; (5) avoiding a prolonged conversation; (6) asking an American speaker to speak at a speed comfortable to him. To overcome problems with lectures and classroom performance, Nizam's strategies were: (1) having an ally in the class; (2) borrowing notes from someone; (3) writing the missing information when the professor reviewed his lecture at the end; (4) writing notes when other students wrote notes; (5) talking with the professor in his office and taking notes when he was unable to elaborate a question or did not understand something; and (6) finding out from fellow students about which professors would be accessible and empathetic and explaining his difficulty to participate or ask questions to him. Nizam's strategies to deal with academic reading problems included: postponing reading when an assigned text was hard to understand and reading it after the next lecture which covered the information in a text. To cope with his problems of academic writing, Nizam found the use of the following strategies to be effective for achieving academic success: (1) forcing himself to start writing; (2) ignoring other things and devoting all his time to writing; (3) staying up all night in order to finish writing a paper; (4) looking up an English grammar for grammatical errors or asked a Malaysian roommate proficient in English; (5) reading outside materials to improve English vocabulary; and (6) explaining his difficulty with writing English to a sympathetic professor.

By the time of the interview, Nizam perceived himself to have made some improvement in reading subject-related books and materials in English. He stated, "I've no problem reading political science textbooks in English. At the beginning, I used to feel intimidated by a thick textbook in English. But as a result of my continuous and persistent learning of English, I don't feel the same way when I see a thick political science book in the English language. Over the years, I've improved my ability to read and comprehend texts in English."

Although Nizam has been resorting to a wide range of coping strategies and believed himself to be academically successful, he still needed to further improve his English, especially, in verbal and non-verbal communication, participation in whole class discussions, asking questions, taking lecture notes, understanding lectures and academic writing in general.

Comparison and Contrast between the Two Cases:

In terms of the family and academic backgrounds and the nature and causes of the language problems and the coping strategies employed, the two cases showed similarities as well as differences.

Similarities:

Commonalities between the two cases were found in the following areas: speaking the Malay language which is the official language of both Indonesia and Malaysia; positive parental attitude and encouragement about learning English; the reasons for learning English; the nature and causes of English language-based problems; strategies used to overcome language problems and achieve academic success; perceived improvement in academic reading skills; and lack of perceived improvement in verbal and non-verbal communication.

Differences:

The two cases exemplified some major differences in their personal and academic backgrounds, reasons for learning English and the amount of English instruction received. Some examples of the differences between the two cases follow.

The two cases represented different nationalities, genders, ages, marital statuses, fields of study and educational levels. In terms of reasons for learning English, Nizam learned English with the conscious decision to specialize in his major field (political science) through the medium of English. His professional goal was to study political science in order to become a high-ranking bureaucrat in the government of Malaysia. He perceived English to be the preferred language and the language of prestige for verbal and written communication among the Malaysian bureaucrats and essential for higher studies in political science. Therefore, Nizam consciously began learning political science through English and acquired knowledge of related concepts, theories and models in Malaysia through English. On the other hand, Lidia was not sure as to how she could use English when she was learning it. She perceived that she learned English only because it was mandatory for her in the school and college freshman years. She learned content in her major field (psychology) in Indonesia through her native Bahasa Indonesia.

As far as the amount of English instruction received was concerned, Nizam learned English for a total of fourteen years and a half. He received English instruction from kindergarten through grade 12 for an average of one hour for five days a week in the Malaysian school system. On the other hand, Lidia learned English for a total of six years and a half. She received English instruction from grade 8 through 12 for 45 minutes a day for 3 days a week in the Indonesian school system.

Conclusion:

In spite of these important differences in the personal and academic backgrounds, the language problems of the two cases did not differ from each other. Lidia, due to her shorter exposure to the English language, was expected to have more language problems than Nizam. But that was not the case. What could be the reasons?

Lidia's case suggests perhaps that English is becoming more important in Indonesia for study abroad and workplace communication. For example, her husband's employers stressed that he must know English well in order to communicate effectively at the workplace. Therefore, the data from Lidia suggest a new trend in the functional need for learning English in Indonesia. This trend, along with the motivation while studying in the U.S., suggests the importance of some factors that can influence one's attitude toward, and involvement in, learning English as a foreign language over time.

CHAPTER 10

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

This study has identified and analyzed the following as the nature, scope and causes of the English language-based problems and the coping strategies of the Indonesian and Malaysian students studying in Indiana University, Bloomington.

A. The English Language-based Problems:

The results of a questionnaire survey indicated that a great majority (60% or over) of the Indonesian and Malaysian students in Indiana University had English language-based difficulty in the following areas: interaction at an informal level; vocabulary; fluency and self-expression; pronunciation; understanding American English; classroom lectures; asking questions in the classroom; answering questions in the classroom; answers and comments from native speakers in the classroom; participation in academic discussions; oral presentations; non-verbal communication in the classroom; communicating with the American professor; performing large quantities of reading; study skills; academic writing; writing term papers; paraphrasing; writing quickly; and writing concisely.

The following three additional problem themes or areas emerged from the qualitative data: (1) answering questions in English in the classroom; (2) summarizing a text in English; and (3) feeling inferior to Americans.

B. The Serious English Language-based Problems:

The questionnaire survey also helped identify the following as the areas in which a significant percentage (20% or over) of the 101 questionnaire respondents had a serious problem. In parentheses beside each problem, is the percentage of respondents having the problem: fluency (20.8%); vocabulary for verbal communication (22.8%); making one's thoughts and ideas clear to native speakers (22.8%); pronunciation (19.8%); asking questions in the classroom (23.8%); participating in academic discussions (34.7%); giving oral presentations (34.7%); non-verbal communication in the classroom (22.8%); communicating with the American professor in the classroom (before or after the lecture) (22.8%); performing large quantities of reading (27.7%); study skills (24.8%); writing term papers (31.7%); academic writing (23.8%); paraphrasing (26.7%); writing quickly (24.8%); writing concisely (33.7%); and vocabulary for academic writing (23.8%).

C. Significant Relationships/Associations between Respondents' Personal/Academic Characteristics and Language Problems:

The study sought to identify the relationships/associations between students' personal and academic characteristics and specific and overall language problems.

The chi-square test results identified the following as the language-based problems in which there was a high degree of association between a specific language problem and personal/academic characteristic:

(1) Interaction at an Informal Level:

There was a high degree of association between respondents' problem with interaction at an informal level and residence in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S. A higher percentage of students (68.9%) who had not resided in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S. reported having problems than students (41.6%) who had:

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101) = 6.07, p < .05$$

A high degree of association was also found between the problem of informal conversation in English and the length of stay in the U.S. A higher percentage of students (81.5%) whose length of stay in the U.S. was below the overall average reported having problems than students (50.8%) whose length od stay in the U.S. was at or above the overall average:

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101) = 11.09, p < .05$$

(2) Fluency in English:

There was a high degree of association between respondents' problems with fluency in English and use of English as a medium of instruction in the home country. A higher percentage of students (82.1%) who had not used English as the medium of instruction in the home country reported having problems than students (67.7%) who had:

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101), 7.89, p < .05$$

There was a high degree of association between students' problems with fluency in English and residence in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S. A higher percentage of students (64.4%) who had not resided in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S. reported having problems than did students (54.1%) who had:

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101) = 10.44, p < .05$$

(3) English Vocabulary for Verbal Communication:

There was a high degree of association between respondents' problems with English vocabulary for verbal communication and residence in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S. A higher percentage of students (84.4%) who had not resided in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S. reported having problems than students (50.0%) who had:

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101) = 12.08, p < .05$$

A high degree of association was also found between students' problems with English vocabulary for verbal communication and the length of stay in the U.S. A higher percentage of students (89.5%) whose length of stay in the U.S. was below the overall average reported having problems than did students (68.3%) whose length of stay in the U.S. was at or above the overall average:

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101) = 8.03, p < .05$$

(4) English Pronunciation:

There was a high degree of association between respondents' problems with English pronunciation and speaking English at home.

A higher percentage of students (87.8%) in whose homes English was not spoken reported having pronunciation problems than students (65.3%) in whose homes English was spoken:

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101) = 8.26, p < .05$$

A high degree of association was also found between students' problems with English pronunciation and residence in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S. A higher percentage of students (83.1%) who had not resided in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S. reported having problems than students (54.1%) who had:

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101) = 9.29, p < .05$$

(5) Making One's Thoughts and Ideas Clear to the Native Speakers:

There was a high degree of association between respondents' problems with making their thoughts and ideas clear to the native speakers and length of stay in the U.S. A higher percentage of students (92.1%) whose length of stay in the U.S. was below the overall average reported having problems than students (71.4%) whose length of stay in the U.S. was at or above the overall average:

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101) = 10.29, p < .05$$

(6) Understanding American English:

There was a high degree of association between students' problems with understanding American English and length of time spent studying English. A higher percentage of students (63.1%) whose length of time of studying English was at or above the national average reported having problems than students (54.7%) whose length of time of studying English was below the national average:

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101) = 9.0, p < .05$$

A high degree of association also existed between students' problems with understanding American and length of stay in the U.S. A higher percentage of students (76.3%) whose length of stay in the U.S. was below the overall average reported having problems than students (49.2%) whose length of stay in the U.S. was at or above the overall average:

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101) = 9.62, p < .05$$

(7) Classroom Lectures in English:

There was a high degree of association between students' problems with classroom lectures in English and length of stay in the U.S. A higher percentage of students (65.8%) whose length of stay in the U.S. was below the overall average reported having problems than students (38.1%) whose length of stay in the U.S. was at or above the overall average:

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101) = 7.57, p < .05$$

(8) Asking Questions in the Classroom:

There was a high degree of association between students' problems with asking questions in the classroom and length of stay in the U.S. A higher percentage of students (89.5%) whose length of stay in the U.S. was below the overall average reported having problems than students (54.0%) whose length of stay in the U.S. was at or above the overall average:

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101) = 15.81, p < .05$$

(9) Understanding Answers and Comments from Native Speakers in the Classroom:

There was a high degree of association between students' problems with understanding answers and comments from native speakers in the classroom and speaking English at home. A higher percentage of students (77.6%) in whose homes English was not spoken reported having problems than students (49.9%) in whose homes English was spoken:

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101) = 11.22, p < .05$$

(10) Participation in Class Discussions in English:

There was a high degree of association between students' problems with participation in class discussions in English and country of origin. A higher percentage (82.5%) of the Malaysian students reported having problems than the Indonesian students (75.0%):

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101) = 7.86, p < .05$$

A high degree of association was also discovered between students' problems with participation in whole class discussions and academic level. A higher percentage of the undergraduate students (85.1%) reported having problems than did the graduate students (67.6%):

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101) = 9.51, p < .05$$

Finally, there was a high degree of association between students' problems with participation in whole class discussions and residence in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S. A higher percentage of students (84.5%) who had not resided in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S. reported having problems than students (62.5%) who had:

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101)\ 8.94, p < .05$$

(11) Communicating with the American Professor in English in the Classroom before or after the Lecture:

There was a high degree of association between students' problems of communication with the American professor in the classroom (before or after lecture) and academic level. A higher percentage of the undergraduate students (74.7%) reported having problems than the graduate students (47.1%):

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101) = 7.89, p < .05$$

(12) Academic Reading in English:

There was a high degree of association between students' problems with academic reading in English and length of stay in the U.S. A higher percentage of students (68.4%) whose length of stay in the U.S. was below the overall average reported having problems than students (42.8%) whose length of stay in the U.S. was at or above the overall average:

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101) = 6.75, p < .05$$

(13) English Vocabulary for Academic Reading:

There was a high degree of association between respondents' problems with English vocabulary for academic reading and residence in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S. A higher percentage of students (70.1%) who had not resided in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S. reported having problems than students (41.7%) who had resided in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S.:

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101) = 7.1, p < .05$$

A high degree of association was also found between students' problems with English vocabulary for academic reading and length of stay in the U.S. A higher percentage of students (81.6%) whose length of stay in the U.S. was below the overall average reported having problems than students (52.4%) whose length of stay in the U.S. was at or above the overall average:

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101) = 9.28, p < .05$$

(14) Writing Term Papers in English:

There was a high degree of association between students' problems with writing term papers in English and length of stay in the U.S. A higher percentage of students (94.7%) whose length of stay in the U.S. was below the overall average reported having problems than students (71.5%) whose length of stay in the U.S. was at or above the overall average:

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101) = 20.97, p < .05$$

(15) Writing Academic English:

There was a high degree of association between respondents' problems with writing academic English and field of study. A higher percentage of students in the sciences (95.7%) reported having problems than students in the humanities (71.4%), social sciences (62.6%) and professional disciplines (74.5%):

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101) = 17.54, p < .05$$

A high degree of association was also found between students' problems with writing academic English and length of stay in the U.S. A higher percentage of students (94.8%) whose length of stay in the U.S. was below the overall average reported having problems than students (66.7%) whose length of stay in the U.S. was at or above the overall average:

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101) = 20.27, p < .05$$

(16) Paraphrasing in English:

There was a high degree of association between respondents' problems with paraphrasing in English and age level. A higher percentage of students (82.2%) who were 25 years old or younger reported having problems paraphrasing in English than did students (57.1%) who were 26 years old or older:

$$\chi^2(3, N =101) = 13.69, p < .05$$

A high degree of association was also discovered between students' problems with paraphrasing in English and marital status. A higher percentage of the single students (79.5%) reported having problems paraphrasing in English than did the married students (60.9%):

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101) = 11.08, p < .05$$

(17) Writing Quickly in English:

There was a high degree of association between respondents' problem with writing quickly in English and use of English as a medium of instruction in the home country. A higher percentage of students (77.7%) who had not used English as a medium of instruction in the home country reported having problems than did students (61.7%) who had used English as a medium of instruction in the home country:

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101) = 7.79, p < .05$$

A high degree of association was also found between students' problems with writing quickly and length of stay in the U.S. A higher percentage of students (92.2%) whose length of stay in the U.S. was below the overall average reported having problems than did students (60.3%) whose length of stay in the U.S. was at or above the overall average:

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101) = 12.89, p < .05$$

(18) Writing Concisely in English:

There was a high degree of association between respondents' problems with writing concisely in English and use of English as a medium of instruction in the home country. A higher percentage of students (89.6%) who had not used English as a medium of instruction reported having problems than did students (70.6%) who had:

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101) = 7.95, p < .05$$

(19) *English Vocabulary for Academic Writing*:

There was a high degree of association between respondents' problems with English vocabulary for academic writing and use of English as a medium of instruction in the home country. A higher percentage of students (83.3%) who had not used English as a medium of instruction in the home country reported having problems than did students (55.9%) who had:

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101) = 10.34, p < .05$$

Further, the chi-square test results indicated that, of all the twelve independent variables, only students' *length of stay in the U.S.* had a significant relationship/association with the *overall* language problems. A significantly higher percentage of the students who had been in the U.S. for a period below the overall average length of stay (92.2%) reported having language problems than that of the students who had been in the U.S. for a period at or above the overall average length of stay (66.6%):

$$\chi^2(3, N = 101) = 10.19108, p < .05.$$

D. Significant Differences in the English Language-based Problems in Terms of Respondents' Personal and Academic Characteristics:

The t-test results indicated that the overall English language-based problems of the 101 respondents differed significantly in terms of the following independent variables: (1) academic level (graduate and undergraduate); (2) previous use of English as a medium of instruction; (3) residence in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S.; and (4) length of stay in the U.S.

(1) Academic Level:

There was a significant difference between the mean scores of graduate and undergraduate students. The mean score for the undergraduate students ($M = 1.9996$) was significantly higher than the mean score for the graduate students ($M = 1.7666$), $t(99) = 2.13$, $p < .05$.

(2) Previous Use of English as a Medium of Instruction:

There was a significant difference between the mean scores of students who had used English as a medium of instruction in their home country and of those who had not used English as a medium of instruction in their home country. The mean score for students who had not used English as a medium of instruction in the home country ($M = 2.0010$) was significantly higher than the mean score for students who had ($M = 1.7638$), $t(99) = 2.17$, $p < .05$.

(3) Residence in an English-speaking Country before Beginning Studies in the U.S.:

There was a significant difference between the mean scores of students who had resided and of those who had not resided in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S. The mean score for students who had not resided in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U. (M = 1.9950) was significantly higher than the mean score for students who had (M = 1.6842), t(99) = 2.58, $p < .05$.

(4) Length of Stay in the Stay:

There was a significant difference between the mean scores of students who had been in the U.S. for a period of time below the overall average and of those who had been in the U.S. for a period of time at or above the overall average. The mean score for students who had stayed in the U.S. for a period of time below the overall average (M = 2.15337) was significantly higher than the mean score for students who had stayed in the U.S. for a period of time at or above the overall average (M = 1.7809, t(99) = 3.63, $p < .05$.

E. The Causes of the English Language-based Problems of the Indonesian and Malaysian Students at Indiana University:

The results of qualitative data indicated the following as some of the major causes of the English language- based problems of Indonesian and Malaysian students: (1) lack of practice in speaking English with native speakers in the U.S.; (2) lack of practice in speaking English in learning and social situations in home country; (3) learning English from inadequately trained non-native speaking teachers of English; (4) colloquial or informal speech of Americans; (5) a. shyness, b. lack of fluency and self-expression in English, and c. lack of confidence in one's English; (6) lack of prior training in academic reading in English; (7) lack of prior practice in performing large quantities of reading in English; (8) slow reading speed; (9) interference from native language in writing English; (10) lack of prior training and practice in writing academic English; (11) lack of emphasis on the acquisition of speaking skills in previous English language training; (12) methods, materials and class time in learning English in home country; (13) previous training by rote methods; and (14) native cultural influence.

F. The Strategies That Helped the Indonesian and Malaysian Students Overcome Their English Language-based Problems, Achieve Academic Success and Improve Their Communicative Competence in English:

The results of qualitative data indicated the following as some of the major strategies that helped the Indonesian and Malaysian students overcome their English language-based problems, achieve academic success and improve their communicative competence in English: watching TV and movies; listening to the radio; talking with Americans; using various ways in expressing oneself; imitating American pronunciation; reading; having an ally in the class; borrowing lecture notes from someone in the class; forming a study group and dividing the reading tasks among group members; looking up a dictionary; writing in the native language first and then translating it into English; starting to write far in advance of the deadline; taking a composition course; attending an intensive English program; and burning the midnight oil (being self-motivated and working hard) to complete reading and writing tasks.

Conclusion:

In conclusion, the present study has identified and analyzed at length the nature, dimensions, differences (in terms of the personal and academic characteristics) and causes of the English language-based problems and the coping strategies of the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University and, in doing so, has answered the four questions of the study.

Furthermore, the present study has, through a series of chi-square tests, identified the relationships between students' personal/academic characteristics and _specific_ and _overall_ language problems.

CHAPTER 11

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

DISCUSSION

This chapter provides (a) a brief restatement of the research problem, (b) a brief description of the findings in terms of their relationships to the objectives, assumption and hypotheses, (c) a description of the major findings in light of the research literature on foreign students' English language-based problems, (d) conclusions, and (e) recommendations.

RESTATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

Research on foreign students has sought to understand how, and how well, the process of education abroad functions, what problems it generates, and how useful the knowledge and skills acquired are perceived to be by the students concerned, their sponsors, and those who hope to benefit from their future work (Spaulding and Flack, 1976). Studies conducted in the United States have focused on the following areas:

(1) Comparisons of nationality groups of foreign students;

(2) Interactions between American and foreign students;

(3) Psychological and social impact of the sojourn on the foreign student;

(4) The relationship of academic achievement to attitudes and adjustment of foreign students;

(5) What happens to foreign students on returning home; and

(6) Admission and academic performance of foreign students.

(Marion, 1986)

(7) Foreign students' adjustment problems, and the process of their adaptation and coping.

Previous research literature also indicates that foreign students encounter, among other problems related to adjustment and coping, English language and study skills problems (Erickson, 1970; Lozada, 1970; Sen, 1970; Win, 1971; Holes, 1972; Payind, 1977; Weir, 1982; de Winter-Hebron, 1984; Heikinheimo and Shute, 1986; and Moore, 1987).

There is currently no extensive study documenting the nature and extent of the English language-based problems of foreign students in the United States. Therefore, there is a need for systematic and in-depth studies. This need for further systematic and in-depth studies to document the nature and extent of the English language-based problems of foreign students is stressed in the research literature. For example, Weir (1982) made the following argument: "Because it [language problem] exists and because it manifests itself in the forms outlined above, there is a strong case for attempting to devise better methods of establishing the extent and nature of any shortfall there might be between a student's proficiency in terms of academic language skills and the demands made in terms of these by the course of study he is undertaking."

Therefore, the present study sought to identify and analyze the nature and causes of the English language-based problems and the coping strategies of the Indonesian and Malaysian students studying in an American university.

THE FINDINGS IN TERMS OF THEIR RELATIONSHIPS TO THE OBJECTIVES, ASSUMPTION AND HYPOTHESES

The Four Stated Objectives and Related Assumption and Hypotheses:

As stated earlier, the goal of the study was to investigate the perceived nature and causes of the English language-based problems and the coping strategies of the Indonesian and Malaysian students studying in Indiana University, Bloomington. To achieve this goal, the study sought to answer the following four questions:

1. What are the major English language-based problems of the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University, Bloomington?
2. Do the English language-based problems of the Indonesian and Malaysian students differ in terms of the selected personal and academic variables?

3. What are the major causes of the English language-based problems of the Indonesian and Malaysian students?

4. What are the coping strategies found to be effective by the Indonesian and Malaysian students for overcoming English language-based problems and achieving academic success?

Answering one question was one of the stated objectives of the study. The study, thus, had four objectives.

The following is a brief discussion of the findings in terms of their relationships to the stated objectives, assumption and hypotheses.

Objective 1 of the Study: Answering Question # 1:

Objective 1 of the study necessitated proving an assumption and testing hypothesis # 1.

Assumption:

An assumption was made that the Indonesian and Malaysian students have English language-based problems. An item-wise analysis of the questionnaire data indicated that significant percentages of the students reported that they had English language-based problems ranging from very minor to very serious. If 15% or more of the 101 respondents reported that they had a problem of some kind, the percentage was considered significant. The percentages of students who reported having problems of some kind ranged from 48.5% to 83.2%. Thirty-one problem areas were identified through the questionnaire. Qualitative data supported the findings from the questionnaire data. Further, qualitative data indicated that students had the following problems: answering questions in the classroom, summarizing a text, and feeling inferior to Americans.

Hypothesis # 1:

Objective 1 necessitated the identification of statistically significant relationships/associations between students' personal and academic variables and specific and overall language problems.

Only three of the 12 personal and academic variables of the students were found to be important in terms of their relationships/associations with the specific English language-based problems. Length of stay in the U.S. was found to be the most important academic variable because it had significant associations with the highest number (11) of the specific language problems. Significantly higher percentages of the Indonesian and Malaysian students whose length of stay in the U.S. was below the overall average reported having problems than those of students whose length of stay in the U.S. was at or above the overall average in the 11 language areas. Residence in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S. was found to be the second most important academic variable because it had statistically significant associations with the second highest number (6) of the language problems. Significantly higher percentages of the students who had not resided in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the

U.S. reported having problems than those of students who had in the 6 language areas. Previous use of English as the medium of instruction in the home country was found to be the third most important academic variable because it had statistically significant associations with the third highest number (4) of the language problems. Significantly higher percentages of students who had not previously used English as the medium of instruction in the home country reported having problems than those of students who had in the 4 language areas. Other personal and academic variables such as nationality, age, field of study, marital status, educational level, speaking English at home, and length of studying English did not show any significant associations/relationships with any significant number of the language problems. Gender and previous use of textbooks in English as personal and academic variables did not have any significant relationships/associations with any of the specific language problems.

Further, the results of chi-square tests indicated that independent variable # 12 (length of stay in the U.S.) had a significant relationship/association with the overall language problems. Other independent variables did not have any significant relationships/associations with the overall language problems.

The study has, thus, answered question # 1: What are the English language-based problems of the Indonesian and

Malaysian students at Indiana University, Bloomington? It has identified the areas in which significant percentages of the Indonesian and Malaysian students had English language-based problems, the 17 areas in which significant percentages of the respondents reported having serious problems, and the personal and academic variables that had significant relationships/associations with specific/overall language problems.

Objective 2 of the Study: Answering Question # 2:

Objective 2 of the study was to determine (through statistical analysis) whether or not the language-based problems of the Indonesian and Malaysian students differed in terms of the 12 personal and academic variables such as nationality, age, gender, educational level, and so on.

Hypotheses 2-13:

Only four of the 12 personal and academic variables were important in their contribution to differences in the overall English language-based problems of the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University, Bloomington. These variables were students' educational level, previous use of English as the medium of instruction in the home country, residence in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S, and length of stay in the U.S.. First, the undergraduate students encountered more severe problems than the graduate students (($t(99) = 2.13$, $p < .05$)). Second, students who had not previously used

English as the medium of instruction in the home country encountered more severe problems than those who had ((t(99) = 2.17, p < .05)). Third, students who had not resided in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S. encountered more severe problems than those who had ((t(99) = 2.58, p < .05)). Finally, students who had been in the U.S. for a period of time below the overall average length of stay encountered more severe problems than those who had been in the U.S. for a period of time at or above the overall length of stay ((t(99) = 3.63, p < .05)). Other personal and academic variables of students such as nationality, age, previous use of textbooks in English, etc., did not make any significant differences in terms of the overall English language-based problems.

The study has, thus, answered question # 2: Do the English language-based problems of the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University differ in terms of the selected personal and academic variables? It has identified the personal and academic variables that contributed to differences in the students' overall English language-based problems.

Objective 3 of the Study: Answering Question # 3:

Objective 3 of the study was to identify and analyze the causes of the English language-based problems as perceived by the Indonesian and Malaysian students at

Indiana University, Bloomington.

The study found that the Indonesian and Malaysian students perceived the following to be some of the major causes of their English language-based problems encountered at Indiana University, Bloomington: (1) prior methods and conditions of learning in the home country; (2) learning English from inadequately trained non-native speaking teachers of English; (3) lack of self-confidence in one's English; (4) lack of prior training and practice in academic reading in English; (5) lack of prior training and practice in performing large quantities of reading in English; (6) lack of prior training and practice in writing academic English; and (7) native cultural influence.

The study did not seek to determine whether or not the perceived causes of the English language-based problems of the two nationality groups (Indonesian and Malaysian) differ significantly. The interview data, however, seemed to suggest that the causes of the English language-based problems were mostly common to both the Indonesian and the Malaysian nationality groups.

The study has, thus, answered question # 3: What are the perceived causes of the English language-based problems of the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University, Bloomington?

Objective 4 of the Study: Answering Question # 4:

Objective 4 of the study was to identify and analyze the coping strategies perceived to be effective by the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University for overcoming English language-based problems and achieving academically.

The study found that the Indonesian and Malaysian students perceived that the following were among the strategies found to be effective for coping with English language-based problems and performing academically at Indiana University, Bloomington: (1) watching TV and movies, listening to the radio, and reading books, magazines and newspapers in English; (2) having an ally in a course, borrowing notes from someone and tape-recording lectures; (3) forming a collaborative study group to overcome problems of performing large quantities of reading, (4) being persistent and reading a text as many times as necessary, (5) re-reading assigned materials from one lecture after the next lecture in order to ensure comprehension, (6) forcing oneself to write; (7) starting to write far in advance of the deadline; (8) taking a composition course, and (9) being self-motivated and working hard.

The study did not seek to determine whether or not the strategies for coping with English language-based problems and performing academically as used by the two nationality groups (Indonesian and Malaysian) differ significantly.

However, the interview data seemed to suggest that the strategies for coping with language problems and for performing academically were mostly common to both the Indonesian and the Malaysian nationality groups.

Thus, the study has answered question # 4: What are the coping strategies found to be effective by the Indonesian and Malaysian students for overcoming English language-based problems and achieving academic success?

THE MAJOR FINDINGS IN LIGHT OF THE RESEARCH LITERATURE ON FOREIGN STUDENTS' ENGLISH LANGUAGE-BASED PROBLEMS

The evidence from the literature on the foreign students in the United Kingdom suggests that serious language problems exist for some overseas students (Weir, 1982). Weir (1982) wrote: "It is our contention that however much some surveys may downgrade the relative weighting of language as a problem, as against say social and welfare difficulties, there is no question of the pervasiveness of its existence." Supporting the findings of previous research (Weir, 1982; Davies, cited in Weir, 1982: 95), the present study made the following generalizations:

(1) The data gathered through the survey questionnaire indicated that a great majority of the Indonesian and Malaysian students who participated in the study had English language-based problems in a large number of

areas investigated.

(2) The results of a t-test indicated that the Indonesian and Malaysian students who had not used English as the medium of instruction in the home country encountered significantly more severe language problems at Indiana University than those who had.

(3) The results of a t-test indicated that the Indonesian and Malaysian students who had not resided in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S. had significantly more severe language problems than those who had.

(4) The results of a t-test indicated that the Indonesian and Malaysian students who had been in the U.S. for a period of time below the overall average length of stay had significantly greater language difficulties than those who had been in the U.S. for a period of time at or above the overall average length of stay.

(5) Contrary to the prediction made in the research literature on foreign students' English language-based problems (Weir, 1982), the present study did not find any significant difference between the overall language problems of student groups based on length of learning English and speaking English at home.

(6) The interview findings of the present study on the perceived causes of the English language-based problems of the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana

University mostly concurred with previous research.

In addition, based on both quantitative and qualitative findings, the present study made the following generalizations.

(1) The results of the chi-square tests indicated that, of all twelve selected personal and academic variables, students' length of stay in the U.S was the most important one. It had significant relationships not only with the highest number (11) of the specific language problems but also with the overall language problems.

(2) The results of a t-test indicated that the Indonesian and Malaysian undergraduate students had significantly more severe language problems than the graduate students.

(3) No significant differences were found between the overall language problems of the student groups based on the following personal and academic variables: nationality, age, field of study, gender, marital status, and previous use of textbooks in English in the present field.

(4) Based on the interview findings, the present study made the following generalizations on the perceived causes of the students' English language-based problems: (a) The Indonesian and Malaysian students' difficulty with asking questions in the American classroom was caused

by their cultural attitude toward the teacher and a gap in their sociolinguistic communicative competence associated with asking questions. (b) Shyness, inadequate time, and lack of personal fluency and self-expression in English, self-confidence and prior experience in participating in academic discussions were important causes of the Indonesian and Malaysian students' problems with participation in academic discussions or oral presentations in English. (c) The Indonesian and Malaysian students lacked not only an effective English language training but also an exposure to the native speaker norm of English in their prior learning activities. (d) The difference between the written forms of English and students' native language in terms of tenses caused delay in completing a writing task in English.

(5) None of the studies cited in the review of literature investigated the coping strategies used by foreign students for overcoming language problems and achieving academic success. However, the present study made the following generalizations on the coping strategies found to be effective by the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University for overcoming language problems and achieving academic success:

(a) Being persistent and trying to express oneself in many ways helped one communicate with Americans.

(b) Watching TV, listening to the radio and reading books, magazines and newspapers helped students improve English vocabulary.

(c) Sharing and discussing communication problems with friendly and empathetic Americans was helpful in overcoming the feeling of inferiority and developing self-confidence and a better self-image.

(d) Having an ally in a course, borrowing notes and tape-recording lectures, reading the assigned materials and being prepared, observing other students in the class and writing notes when they do so, and communicating with the professor in the office helped students overcome their problems with understanding classroom lectures.

(e) Forming a study group and dividing a reading assignment among group members, and being persistent and reading a text as many times as necessary to ensure comprehension were found to be effective strategies for dealing with reading problems.

(f) Carefully monitoring deadlines, starting to write an assignment far in advance of the deadline, using a bilingual dictionary, and being self-motivated and working hard to complete a task were strategies that helped students overcome problems with academic writing.

CONCLUSIONS

The study concluded that a great majority of the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University had English language-based problems in the following areas: verbal and non-verbal communication; classroom lectures; academic discussions; study skills, strategies and habits; reading comprehension; reading speed; reading in large quantities; reading vocabulary; academic writing in general; writing term papers; writing quickly; paraphrasing; summarizing; and vocabulary for reading, writing and oral communication.

Second, there was no significant difference between the overall language problems of the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University.

Third, the Indonesian and Malaysian undergraduate students had significantly more severe language problems than the graduate students.

Fourth, the Indonesian and Malaysian students who had not used English as the medium of instruction in the home country encountered significantly greater language problems than those who had.

Fifth, the Indonesian and Malaysian students who had not resided in an English-speaking country before beginning studies in the U.S. had significantly greater language problems than those who had.

Sixth, the Indonesian and Malaysian students who had been in the U.S. for a period of time below the overall average length of stay had significantly more severe language problems than those who had been in the U.S. for a period of time at or above the overall average length of stay.

Seventh, students' length of stay in the U.S. had significant relationships with their specific as well as overall language problems. That is, higher percentages of the students who had been in the U.S. for a period which was below the overall average length of stay reported having language problems than students who had been in the U.S. for a period which was at or above the overall average length of stay in the U.S.

Eighth, the perceived causes of the English language-based problems of the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University were mostly related to the students' prior learning and native cultural influence.

Ninth, the perceived causes of the English language-based problems and the coping strategies used were mostly common to both the Indonesian and Malaysian nationality groups.

Tenth, use of various types of coping strategies and metacognitive control of the strategies to accomplish a learning task, a high level of self-discipline and motivation and an inner drive to succeed in a degree program enabled the Indonesian and Malaysian students at Indiana University to overcome language problems and achieve academic success.

Finally, students improved in their ability to read and write and were perhaps successful in their courses, but did not perceive a significant improvement in their ability to speak English.

RECOMMENDATIONS

What Do the Findings Mean?

The findings of the study mean that English language-based problems existed for a high percentage of the Indonesian and Malaysian students studying at Indiana University, Bloomington. They indicate an urgent need for further research and training concerning the English language-based problems of the Indonesian and Malaysian students studying in American universities. What can be done to help alleviate the English language-based problems of the Indonesian and Malaysian students studying in Indiana University in particular and in other American universities in general? The following recommendations are made:

A. Recommendations to Students:

(1) The Indonesian and Malaysian students, who will come to study in the U.S., will find it helpful if they learn about American professors and their academic standards, attitude, and expectations about students in higher education. A great majority of them are perhaps ignorant about these aspects.

(2) Students need to clearly communicate with their American professors by going to their offices and explaining their academic problems, particularly, their problems of verbal and non-verbal communication involving participation in academic discussions, asking

questions, and so on.

B. Recommendations to American Professors:

American professors should make an effort to understand the Indonesian and Malaysian students, their cultural and ethnic backgrounds, prior learning methods and adjustment problems associated with their study in the USA. They should have empathy for the students' problems including language problems. Further, they should encourage Indonesian and Malaysian students not only to work hard but also to participate in the classroom and discuss course-related matters in informal meetings.

C. Recommendations to the International Student Services at Indiana University:

(1) The Indonesian and Malaysian students need to develop the knowledge, skills and strategies for using English as the medium of learning. Hence, English language-based reading and study skills, not just general language skills, must be taught. A half-semester course in reading and study skills should be made mandatory for students who need it. Instruction should concentrate on the development of skills and strategies concerning English vocabulary development; verbal and non-verbal communication with Americans, particularly in the context of learning; learning from classroom lectures; and efficient academic reading and writing. Instruction should take into consideration

differences in students' needs and problems. Wherever necessary, remedial services should be made available to students who need them.

(2) The university should organize social and cultural events in which the Indonesian and Malaysian students are encouraged to participate. The purpose should be to help increase students' understanding of American life and society.

D. Recommendations to the Governments/Sponsors of the Indonesian and Malaysian Students:

The governments/sponsors of the Indonesian and Malaysian students should provide students with training in how to use English as the medium of learning. For example, students should be taught how to communicate in the classroom, participate in academic discussions, efficiently read textbooks and materials, take notes from classroom lectures, write academic English and term papers. The instructors should present video-tapes of American classroom lectures, classroom interaction, and samples of textbook annotation technique, lecture note-taking technique (e.g., the Cornell System of Note-taking), and term papers.

E. Recommendations for Future Research:

(1) Further research is needed to learn more about the coping strategies of the Indonesian and Malaysian students. A study involving the use of a questionnaire and in-depth personal interviews on coping strategies

can indicate whether or not the two nationality groups differ significantly.

(2) Future research on the perceived English language-based problems of the Indonesian and Malaysian students should also obtain teacher perceptions of the students' problems. Two techniques can be used for this purpose: a survey questionnaire and personal interviews.

(3) Further research on the Indonesian and Malaysian students at other American institutions of higher education is needed to confirm or reject the conclusions of the present study.

(4) It would be of significance to conduct a study to compare and contrast the English language-based problems of the Indonesian and Malaysian students with those of other nationality groups.

(5) Further research is needed to determine whether or not foreign students' English language-based problems have relevance to their final performance (i.e., GPA scores).

(6) Although, in the test/retest reliability, the value of r (.7894, $p < .000$) for the overall scores was significant, the SPEARMAN CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS for the following items of the questionnaire were not significant: 19, 21, 22, 23, 24, 26 and 29. What could be the possible reasons for not finding significant correlation coefficients for these items? One

explanation can be that the structure of the items that did not obtain significant correlation coefficients may have been complex or ambiguous. Students may not have understood the items. A form of the questionnaire revised for simplicity and brevity might be tested to see whether structure of items and length of the instrument affect results.

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Appendix A: Questionnaire

Bloomington, Indiana

January 17, 1990

Dear Respondent:

Please find enclosed a questionnaire and a self-addressed envelope.

This questionnaire is for a study (1) to identify and analyze the English language-based academic problems encountered by students from your country studying in the U.S. and (2) to make some recommendations to alleviate these problems.

Please note that the researcher intends to find out, through this questionnaire and follow-up case studies of some selected respondents, the general English language-based problems of students from your country, not just your individual problems in effectively using English. In fact, your responses to the questionnaire will be kept anonymous. Your honest and sincere responses are needed by the researcher only to identify the general English language-based problems of your nationality group.

For items in SECTION I, please put a check mark (✓) beside either "yes" or "no" and enter number of years/months where necessary. For SECTION II, please indicate your level of a problem on each item as honestly, accurately and completely as possible. The questionnaire should be returned to the address given below before February 2, 1990.

Your time and participation are greatly appreciated. In return for your participation, you'll receive a copy of the study's findings, conclusions and recommendations as soon as the study is completed.

Thank you.

Sincerely yours,

Researcher.

Where to Return the Questionnaire:

D101, Nutt Apts.,
Indiana University,
Bloomington, IN 47406
Phone: 857-0037.

P.S.: If you need any clarification about the questionnaire, please feel free to call me at the above telephone number.

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION I: YOUR PERSONAL AND ACADEMIC CHARACTERISTICS

PLEASE RESPOND TO THE FOLLOWING ITEMS AS COMPLETELY AS POSSIBLE.

1. Your home country? ______________________

2. Your date of birth? ______________________

3. Your field of study? ____________________

4. Your sex? (Check ✓)

    male ___
    female ___

5. Your marital status? (Check ✓)

    married ___
    single ___

6. Your academic level? (Check ✓)

    Ph.D. ___
    Master's ___
    Undergraduate ___

7. Did you use English as the medium of instruction in your home country? (check ✓)

    Yes ___ No ___. If the answer is yes, how long? (Enter number of years/months)

    ___ years ___ months

8. Did you use textbooks in English for previous studies in your present field? (Check ✓)

    Yes ___ No ___

9. Was English spoken in your home either as a first or second language? (Check ✓)

    Yes ___ No ___

Please go to next page

10. Had you resided in an English-speaking country before you began your studies in the U.S.? (Check ✓)

Yes ___ No ___

If the answer is yes, how long? (Enter number of years/months)

Years ___ and months ___

11. How long have you studied English as a language? (Enter number of years/months)

___ years and ___ months

12. How long have you been in the U.S.? (Enter number of years/months)

___ years and ___ months

Please go to next page

SECTION II: YOUR ENGLISH LANGUAGE-BASED SKILLS

DIRECTIONS:

PLEASE READ EACH STATEMENT CAREFULLY. CIRCLE A NUMBER TO INDICATE WHAT LEVEL OF THE PROBLEM MOST APPROPRIATELY DESCRIBES YOU.

The four different levels of each problem are designated as follows:

Scale: 1--4

1 = I have no problem
2 = I have a very minor problem
3 = I have a somewhat serious problem
4 = I have a very serious problem

A. VERBAL AND NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION:

General Communication

1. Having a smooth informal conversation in English 1 2 3 4
2. Speaking fluently in English 1 2 3 4
3. Having an adequate English vocabulary for effective verbal communication 1 2 3 4
4. Understanding the tone of voice of an American speaker 1 2 3 4
5. Knowing what to say and how to say it in English while talking with Americans 1 2 3 4
6. Pronouncing English so that native English speakers can understand 1 2 3 4
7. Making my ideas clear to native English speakers 1 2 3 4
8. Understanding what is said by Americans at their normal speed 1 2 3 4
9. Understanding American attitudes, customs and social circumstances 1 2 3 4

Please go to next page

1 = I have no problem
2 = I have a very minor problem
3 = I have a somewhat serious problem
4 = I have a very serious problem

Classroom Communication

10. Understanding classroom lectures in English 1 2 3 4

11. Asking questions in English in the classroom 1 2 3 4

12.. Understanding answers and comments given by native English speakers to questions in the classroom 1 2 3 4

13. Participating in whole class discussions in English 1 2 3 4

14. Participating in group discussions in English 1 2 3 4

15. Giving speeches/oral reports in English 1 2 3 4

16. Hand-raising, making eye contact, smiling, etc. in classroom communication 1 2 3 4

17. Feeling comfortable in talking with an American instructor in the classroom 1 2 3 4

B. ACADEMIC READING IN ENGLISH

18. Reading college-level textbooks in English 1 2 3 4

19. Performing large quantities of reading in English within a short period of time for any given course 1 2 3 4

20. Understanding written requirements for a course 1 2 3 4

21. Having an adequate English vocabulary to understand textbooks in a course 1 2 3 4

Please go to next page

1 = I have no problem
2 = I have a very minor problem
3 = I have a somewhat serious problem
4 = I have a very serious problem

22. Comprehending English words with multiple meanings	1 2 3 4
23. Employing efficient study skills (e.g., efficiently taking lecture notes and following any systematic study technique)	1 2 3 4
24. Organizing and synthesizing information for a course	1 2 3 4

C. ACADEMIC WRITING IN ENGLISH

25. Writing research papers in English	1 2 3 4
26. Writing reports, projects, and class assignments in English	1 2 3 4
27. Paraphrasing English passages	1 2 3 4
28. Writing quickly in English	1 2 3 4
29. Writing concisely in English	1 2 3 4
30. Meeting deadlines for written assignments	1 2 3 4
31. Having an adequate English vocabulary for writing essays/reports/letters	1 2 3 4

D. GENERAL PROBLEMS

32 Please comment on any English language-based problems you've encountered while studying in the U.S.

____

____

____

____

(Please use back of page if more space is needed to elaborate)

Please go to next page

33 Describe, based on your personal experiences of listening and speaking, your own perception of American attitudes in communicative situations. That is, describe how they are toward you when you try to talk with them.

(Please use back of page if more space is needed to elaborate)

34 Describe in general the kinds of problems you may have with your major department. (Be as specific as possible)

(Please use the space below if you need to further elaborate)

NOTE: YOUR PARTICIPATION IN THIS STUDY IS GREATLY APPRECIATED.

A COPY OF THE STUDY'S FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS WILL BE MAILED TO YOU AS SOON AS THE STUDY IS COMPLETED.

---- THANK YOU ----

Appendix B: Classroom Observation Schedule

STUDENT ______________________

INSTRUCTOR ______________________

COURSE ______________________

DAY & TIME ______________________

BUILDING & ROOM #

CLASSROOM OBSERVATION SCHEDULE

1	2	3	4	5	6
Setting	Participants	Activities & Interactions	Frequency & Duration of Activity/ Interaction	Subtle Factors	Observer Comment
classroom	a. subject vs. teacher; b. subject vs. class; c. subject vs. group.			Non-verbal Communication	

Appendix C: Permission to Use Human Subjects

Information and guidelines are available in your department chair's office

Indiana University/Bloomington Campus
Committee for the Protection of Human Subjects

DOCUMENTATION OF REVIEW AND APPROVAL
of
Research Project Utilizing Human Subjects

TITLE OF PROJECT A Study to Identify and Analyze Some English Language-based ~~Problems of Selected Groups of Foreign Students at a U.S. University.~~

FUNDING SOURCE Self APPL. DEADLINE ____

PROJECT TYPE: Research ____ Funded Project # ____ New ____ Continuation ____
Teaching ____ Course # ____ New ____ Repeat ____

PROJECT DURATION - START DATE Summer I, 1989 END DATE Summer I, 1990

PRIN. INVESTIGATOR Mohammad Solaiman Ali SCHOOL/DEPARTMENT Language Education

Campus Address Education 211 Telephone (O) 855-7167 (H) 333-9769

RANK: Faculty ____ Res. Scientist ____ Post-Doc ____ Staff ____
Student x If yes, name of faculty advisor Dr. Sharon L. Pugh

PROJECT DIR. (if different) ____ SCHOOL/DEPARTMENT ____

Campus Address ____ Telephone (O) ____ (H) ____

IF THIS IS A NON-COMPETING CONTINUATION APPLICATION OR EXACTLY THE SAME AS A PROTOCOL SUBMITTED AND APPROVED WITHIN THE PAST YEAR, AND THERE ARE NO CHANGES IN SUBJECT USE PROCEDURES, THEN SIMPLY FILL OUT THIS FORM AND ATTACH A COPY OF ALL MATERIALS PREVIOUSLY APPROVED.

As the signature below testifies, the principal investigator(s) is pledged to conform to the following:

As one engaged in investigation utilizing human subjects, I acknowledge the rights and welfare of the human subject/patient involved.

I acknowledge my responsibility as an investigator to secure the informed consent of the subject by explaining the procedures, in so far as possible, and by describing the risks as weighed against the potential benefits of the investigation.

I agree to conform to the ethical principles regarding all research involving humans as subjects as set forth in the report of the National Commission for the Protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical and Behavioral Research entitled, "Ethical Principles and Guidelines for the Protection of Human Subjects of Research," also known as the Belmont Report.

If there is reason for me to deviate from the above, I will seek prior approval in writing from the Bloomington Campus Committee for the Protection of Human Subjects.

PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR(S):
Mohammad Solaiman Ali (typed name) M. S. Ali (signature) May 5, 1989 (date)

If Student, Faculty Advisor:
Dr. Sharon L. Pugh (typed name) Sharon L. Pugh (signature) ✓ May 5, 1989 (date)

*CAMPUS LEVEL REVIEW:

This protocol for the use of human subject(s) has been reviewed and approved by the Indiana University/Bloomington Campus Committee for the Protection of Human Subjects.

✓ Exempt Review ____ Expedited Review ____ Full Review ____ Not Approved

____ Chairperson/Agent IU Committee 5/31/89 Date

[illegible] & copy to P.T. - [illegible]

Appendix D: Consent Form

CONSENT FORM

Statement of Informed Consent:

I have voluntarily consented to participate in this study conducted by Mr. Mohammad Solaiman Ali who is a doctoral student at the Department of Language Education, School of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington. My informed consent to participate in the study is based on the following terms and conditions:

1. The general purpose of the study and the procedures to be followed in collecting data have been clearly explained to me and I understand the explanation that has been given and what my participation will involve.

2. The research project is the investigator's Ph.D. dissertation. The purpose of this study is to identify and analyze the English language-based problems of Indonesian and Malaysian students currently enrolled in Indiana University, Bloomington.

3. The investigator will apply all of the following methods to collect data from me: questionnaire, substantive personal interviews, classroom observation and examination of samples of academic essays and lecture notes.

4. All of the information to be provided by me will be kept confidential and used for research purposes only.

5. When the study is completed, the findings, conclusions and recommendations of the study will be made available to me.

6. I am free to withdraw my consent and to discontinue participation in the project at any time without penalty.

I agree to participate in this study.

Name of Participant ____________________________

Signature of Participant __________________________

Date ________________

Appendix E: Chart A: Relationships/Associations between Students' Personal and Academic Characteristics and Specific English Language Problems.

Chart A: RELATIONSHIPS/ASSOCIATIONS BETWEEN STUDENTS' PERSONAL AND ACADEMIC CHARACTERISTICS AND SPECIFIC ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROBLEMS.

Specific English Language Problems

Personal and Academic Characteristics	Informal conversations	Fluency	Pronunciation	Spoken vocabulary	Making ideas clear	American English	Classroom lectures	Asking questions	Answers & comments from	Discussions	Communicating with professors	Academic reading	Reading vocabulary	Term papers	Academic writing	Paraphrasing	Writing quickly	Writing concisely	Writing vocabulary		
1. Nationality										✓											
2. Age																✓					
3. Field of Study															✓						
4. Gender																					
5. Marital Status																✓					
6. Academic Level										✓	✓										
7. English Medium Instruction		✓															✓	✓	✓		
8. Use of Textbooks in English																					
9. Speaking English at Home			✓						✓												
10. Residence in an English-speaking Country	✓	✓	✓	✓						✓			✓								
11. Length of Learning English						✓															
12. Length of Stay in the U.S.	✓			✓	✓	✓	✓	✓				✓	✓	✓	✓		✓				

Appendix F: Chart B: Relationships/Associations between Students' Personal and Academic Characteristics and Overall English Language Problems.

Chart B: RELATIONSHIPS/ASSOCIATIONS BETWEEN STUDENTS' PERSONAL AND ACADEMIC CHARACTERISTICS AND OVERALL ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROBLEMS.

Personal and Academic Characteristics	Overall English Language Problems	
	Significant Relationship/Association	
	Yes	No
1. Nationality		
2. Age		✓
3. Field of Study		✓
4. Gender		✓
5. Marital Status		✓
6. Academic Level		✓
7. English Medium Instruction		✓
8. Use of Textbooks in English		✓
9. Speaking English at Home		✓
10. Residence in an English-speaking Country before Beginning Studies in the U.S.		✓
11. Length of Learning English		✓
12. Length of Stay in U.S.	✓	

Vita

Vita

Name: M. Solaiman Ali

Present Address:
D101, Nutt Apts.,
Indiana University,
Bloomington, Indiana,
USA 47406

Born: January 20, 1951. Place: Rural town of Kachakata, Rangpur, East Pakistan (now Bangladesh).

Present Nationality: United States of America.

Educational Background:

Ph.D.: Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana, 1985-91.

Major: Language Education (Reading Program).

Minor: English.

M.A. (with thesis): Lakehead University, Thunder Bay, Ontario, Canada, 1980-82.

Major: English.

M.Ed.: Lakehead University, Canada, 1982-83.

Major: Curriculum Development.

M.A.: Rajshahi University, Rajshahi, Bangladesh, 1973-75.

Major: English.

B.A.: Rajshahi University, Bangladesh, 1968-73.

Major: English.

Minors: History and Political Science.

High School: Carmichael College, Rangpur, East Pakistan (now Bangladesh), 1966-68.

Junior High School: Kachakata Junior High and High School, Kachakata (District: Kurigram), Rangpur, East Pakistan, 1961-66.

Elementary School: Indragarh Free Primary School, Kachakata, Rangpur, East Pakistan, 1956-61.

Teaching and Related Experiences:

(1) Student Assistant, Education Library, Indiana University, 1988-91.

(2) Tutor, VITAL (Volunteers in Tutoring Adult Learners), Monroe County Public Library, Bloomington, Indiana, 1988-89.

(3) Associate Instructor/Research Assistant, Learning Skills Center and Dept. of Language Education, Indiana University, 1985-88.

(4) Lecturer in English, University of Constantine, Constantine, Algeria, 1983-84.

(5) Teaching/Research Assistant, Dept. of English and School of Education, Lakehead University, Thunder Bay, Ontario, Canada, 1980-83.

(6) Lecturer in English, Universities of Oran and Annaba, Algeria, 1977-80.

(7) Lecturer in English, Jahangirnagar University, Savar, Dhaka, Bangladesh, 1976-77.

Research:

(1) Ph.D. dissertation: A Study to Identify and Analyze the Perceived Nature and Causes of the English Language-based Problems and the Coping Strategies of the Indonesian and Malaysian Students Studying in an American University.

(2) M.A. thesis: The Dramatic Significance of I.i of Hamlet, Othello and Macbeth: a Study of the Relationship between the Opening Scene and the Complete Drama.

Topics for Ph.D. Qualifying Examinations:

(1) College Reading and Study Skills.

(2) Relationship between Reading and Writing: the Transactional Theory of Reading.

(3) Schema and Metacognition to Promote Critical Reading Skills of College Students.

(4) National Campaign for Adult Functional Literacy.

Honors:

(1) The BEECHLER AWARD for outstanding dissertation proposal, Indiana University, 1990.

(2) OUTSTANDING GRADUATE STUDENT AWARD IN THE FIELD OF READING FOR DEDICATION TO THE IMPROVEMENT OF READING AND LITERACY THROUGHOUT THE WORLD, Indiana State Reading Council (an affiliate of International Reading Association), Indianapolis, Indiana, 1987.

(3) PRESIDENT'S AWARD for my essay "The Impact of English on Bengali Literature," Rajshahi University, Rajshahi, East Pakistan, 1969.

(4) NATIONAL MERIT SCHOLARSHIP, government of Pakistan, for outstanding performance in the higher secondary certificate examinations, 1968.

(5) NATIONAL MERIT SCHOLARSHIP, government of Pakistan, for outstanding performance in the junior merit scholarship examinations, 1964.

Language Skills:

(1) Bengali: my native language.

(2) English: my second language, medium of learning and field of specialization.

(3) French: foreign language. I have the intermediate level proficiency in reading and writing.